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State of Connecticut

REPORT

OF THE

BUREAU OF LABOR

ON THE

CONDITIONS OF WAGE-EARNERS

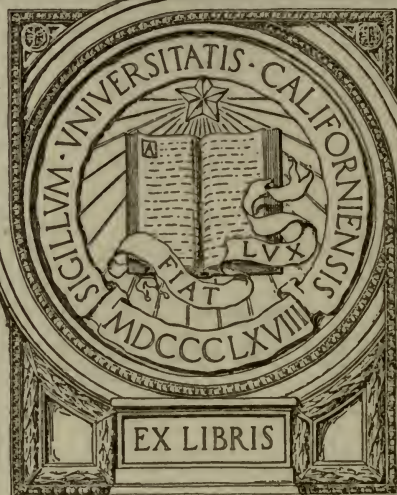
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State of Connecticut
PUBLIC DOCUMENT—SPECIAL

REPORT

OF THE

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

ON

The Conditions of Wage-Earners in the State

Printed in Compliance with Statute

CHARLOTTE MOLYNEUX HOLLOWAY,

Industrial Investigator

HARTFORD

PUBLISHED BY THE STATE

1918

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PUBLICATION
APPROVED BY
THE BOARD OF CONTROL

NO. 1000
ALBANY, N.Y.

THE JOURNAL PRESS
MERIDEN, CONN.



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

*To his Excellency the Governor and the Legislature of the
State of Connecticut:*

I herewith submit the report of the Industrial Investigator of the Department of Labor and Factory Inspection on the Conditions of the Industrial Wage Earners of the state during 1917 and 1918.

Respectfully,

WILLIAM S. HYDE,

Commissioner of Labor and
Factory Inspection,

Hartford, January 15, 1919.

REPORT OF THE INDUSTRIAL INVESTIGATOR FOR 1917-1918

TO THE HONORABLE WILLIAM S. HYDE,

Commissioner of Labor and Factory Inspection:

The report of the Industrial Investigator, is herewith submitted to you for your approval and subsequent transmission to his Excellency, the Governor, and the General Assembly of the State of Connecticut.

It is somewhat delayed owing to the unsettled condition of industrial affairs during the years 1917-1918, and to the belief that the sudden collapse of the European War in which the United States was associated with the Allied Powers, justified its not being closed until there was some evidence collected as to the manner in which business would be adjusted as to after war standards and stability.

The uncertainty and inconvenience of railroad service was a most annoying obstacle to speedy transaction of business in 1918 and the necessity of spending much time in obtaining and verifying individual statements of workers regarding home life and its demands, particularly the effects of the high cost of living, food, rent and clothing; the demands of industries previously investigated for attention to certain difficulties, and the answering of the appeals of individual workers for help in their troubles, consumed much valuable time.

The report aims to be a concise statement of the facts and conditions in the state. It has covered a number of industries which technically speaking cannot be classed as factories but which played their part in no mean manner in furnishing aid to those factories. Much which was most interesting and of undoubted although not immediate value was eliminated. Health statistics have been turned over to those who can put them to immediate advantage. It is hoped that sufficient is recorded to convey a clear idea of the work and affairs of the industrial workers and the industries of the state in the most momentous epoch of Connecticut's history.

Thanks are given to Mr. Shiras Morris of the Hart & Hegeman Co. of Hartford; Mr. Henry S. Sargent of the Sargent Co. of New Haven, for suggestions as to financial statistics; the Scovill Mfg. Co. of Waterbury, the Cheney Brothers of South Manchester, the Travelers Ins. Co. the Hartford Rubber Works, the Merrow Machine Co. and Mr. Charles F. Murray of the Cigar Makers' Union, all of Hartford; and Mr. L. O. Pethick of the Winchester Repeating Arms Co. of New Haven for special courtesies.

Unfailing courtesy and valuable aid, altogether voluntary, were received by the Investigator from all the firms and industries with the exception of six, five of which were in Hartford and one in New Britain; a most wonderful record of patience and co-operation on the part of men whose minds were occupied with vast business affairs and who were harassed by a multitude of petty as well as serious annoyances.

CHARLOTTE MOLYNEUX HOLLOWAY.

WOMEN AND OTHERS IN INDUSTRIAL PLANTS.

In 1915-16 when the demand of the fighting nations in Europe for ammunition was heavy, and many plants in the United States were supplying their needs, a large number of women entered the ranks of munition workers.

Before 1910, women were mostly employed in the textile industries. Since then they have rapidly become numerous in brass, silver, copper and iron works. It is during the past six years that they have become an important factor in filling shells, priming, drilling, milling, bending tubes, etc., in short in doing work formerly held as man's special province.

Not only have they gained entrance into many places of this sort but they have tasted the sweetness of high wages and are loth to relinquish the work which gains such reward. This is indicated by the demonstration of the women workers of Great Britain who were discharged because their work ended with the armistice, and because it was held that whatever employment of that character was to be had in the future should be given to the soldiers who were returning penniless after four years of war.

To quote from the cable: "Five hundred of these women, all richly dressed, marched to the government offices demanding that they be retained in employment."

Such a proceeding was not duplicated in America, for however much we are becoming metamorphosed, American women are of somewhat different fibre. However this country is becoming so radically changed from its traditions, and Bolshevism and Prussianism under the form of new systems are taking hold of so many elements, it is hard to say what will happen in the transition period from the height of activity to the sudden plunge into inertness which came upon the country in November, 1918. The intelligent observer who has been making a component whole out of detached happenings cannot fail to see there is a dangerous spirit of unrest and a tendency to insist that the ceasing of the war makes a demobilization of labor rather than a shifting.

Nor can this be laid exclusively at the door of the foreign born. When the peace parades drew into their ranks thousands of workers, many of those marchers who only knew

enough English to count money were among the most sincere rejoicers over the stopping of carnage although they knew it meant pecuniary loss.

It is a significant, though not at all a sinister fact, that 1918 finds women taking more active interest in labor meetings and demonstrations than ever before. The reason is, they have never before been so largely concerned with the question of wages. And they have the right to feel they were a vital force in the winning of the war.

It was not merely since our entrance into the war that women munition workers were helping liberty. Sunday, Dec. 21, 1918, the New York Sunday Times published this excerpt from an article in the London Chronicle: "The indirect help of America which was available to the Allies in the shape of finances, food and war supplies was at least an evidence that America, though neutral, did not favor Germany." Women were a large part in giving that indirect and vital aid.

December 3, 1918, in Paris, Marshal Joffre said in conversation with Dr. Horatio S. Kraus of New York: "It was the weight of America, her moral and material resources and not the least her very considerable army thrown into the balance at the critical moment that turned the scales and won the victory."

And it was the splendid enthusiasm and production of the great army that stayed at home which made it possible for the army of two million abroad to do its work so effectively.

The true patriotism which called women from all sorts of homes into war work cannot be too greatly extolled. There was a democracy of endeavor which cannot fail to have good results. Its effects will be more apparent later.

The demand for greater production led to an increase in the numbers of women night workers. It also led to the employment of women who would not have been considered available a year before. Women of fifty toiled along side of girls not yet out of their teens. The ranks of other industries, notably such textiles as were not necessary for war, were quickly depleted. Women filled the places vacated by men in offices, stores and factories. They also entered work created expressly for them.

In passing it should be recorded that despite the fact the dry goods stores of the state, more especially in Bridgeport, suffered severely by the exodus of women workers to the munition plants, they aided cheerfully in furnishing help.

In that city, the stores had displayed in their windows conspicuous signs exhorting women to enter war plants.

Apart from the women always accustomed to work were hundreds of women of leisure who eagerly started into the factories to do their best for the freedom of the world.

Even before our entrance into the war there was exaggeration of the number of women working nights. Among people who were paid for having accurate knowledge, the impression either prevailed or was allowed to prevail that a great number were so employed.

The truth is, that in the state at the close of 1916, but eleven factories employed women at night, and in 1917, the added number was not great. When the second draft was ordered the possibility of having to utilize woman labor more extensively both day and night confronted manufacturers as a near probability and they began to deluge the Department of Labor and Factory Inspection with letters of inquiry as to how they could arrange the hours for their night workers.

The manufacturers of the state have been scrupulous about finding out the limits to which they could work women. When emergencies arose, such as the making of gas masks, they endeavored to have the emergency law invoked to effect a temporary lifting of state regulations that workers might be allowed to work as long as they were willing; this work should be performed with the understanding that it was overtime to be paid for accordingly. The State authorities could see no way that the laws could be temporarily set aside and the result was that the manufacturers to whom every hour was vital submitted with considerable grace. They also lost time and production by the enforcement of the 8-hour law on government contracts. In many places where firms were doing part government work and part individual orders, this was a source of constant trouble and dissatisfaction. Where it was wholly government work, it was less disturbing although reducing production by 11 hours a week in some concerns and in others by 7.

The matter of most serious moment in this connection was the lessening of production. Women workers in the main were ready and willing to labor 10 hours a day if they could achieve the task. The difficulties made by the shorter work day were largely offset by the splendid services of women of leisure who entered the factories and made most apt pupils and cheerfully toiled at any task so that it helped production. These women did not demur at any-

thing; physical discomfort and weariness were met with brave and smiling faces and they proved conclusively their metal and worth while as conclusively speeding the work and adding to its excellence. It is the testimony of the men in the places where they labored that in a surprisingly short time they became experts and their work showed not only they were willing with their hands, but that their hands were directed by intelligence.

In the brief eighteen months of our participation with the allied powers in the war for the destruction of might makes right the women of America as a whole, and of Connecticut as a large part, showed in their achievements in war supply work a determination and patriotism that were wonderful. They did, at the entrance of the war, without the compulsion either of laws or necessity, what the women of France, Italy and Great Britain were doing at the end of two years and nine months, and bear it in mind that Connecticut women workers were not given equal pay with the men as were some of the women of Great Britain, nor were they pampered by continual gifts of "war bonuses" to keep them in good humor. They were the stuff of which heroes and martyrs were made. While the men workers in some plants showed a regrettable disposition to interrupt labor by strikes, the women were more faithful in all respects. It is not to be supposed, however, that all of the women workers in this state, more than in any other, were actuated by absolute patriotism without regard for pay in entering this work. Conversation with hundreds of them in different plants showed they were all keenly aware of the monetary value of their work and many of them finding that one plant paid more than another did not hesitate to go there. But they had the woman-characteristic of sticking to their job rather better than the men.

Not only in the ranks of manual laborers, but in the clerical, agricultural, postal, telegraphic, insurance and railway service, police work, elevators, etc., have women taken places as men were mobilized. Pre-war conditions of women having been in some of these occupations, made their general entrance less exploited than their increase as munition workers. Really, there has been so much prominence given in the talk and books of those dealing with women's munitions work that justice is hardly done to the thousands of women who were working in other than war tool production. It is less a rarity to see a woman inspecting cartridges than to witness her lowering a railway gate, running an elevator, or swinging a policeman's club. In one way, the

rather matter-of-fact manner in which women took up these unaccustomed callings resembles the French rather than any other nation. The French women knew this work must be done and they proceeded to do it as quickly and quietly as possible.

In France there was no appeal to the popular imagination, no creation of superfluous bureaus to provide places for men and women who should have been in the trenches or the factories, no sending forth of an army of paid lecturers to show other countries what it was doing. The French method as described in the *Bulletin des Usines de Guerre* appeals to the real democratic mind; at first there was a reluctance in employing women and it was thought that workers could be imported from the colonies in sufficient number to get out the work needed, but the rapid advance of the enemy checked this and women were working in large numbers in 1915; inspectors were appointed to see that the women workers in the factories were well cared for and treated; where it was necessary to transport them from one locality to another the intending employers were requested to have proper provision made for their housing and comfort and they were guaranteed they would not be cut down on their piece work. The French government has not and apparently does not intend to make all the reports of its inspectors public property, evidently acting under the belief that as long as the workers were properly treated and their comfort and sanitation cared for, there should be as little exploitation of individual establishments as possible.

Munition was the first necessity in France when women entered the work in large enough numbers to become distinct factors. There were 44,162 in 1914. In January, 1918, there were 399,631 or 23% of the entire workers. While the British and Prussian government pursued the plan of a tight hold on, and in pursuance thereof took control and oversight of, munition plants, France from the first held aloof as far as possible from government domination and although it took some interest in 1917, the factories were almost wholly controlled by their owners and managers.

So rapid and efficient was the output that Great Britain appointed a commissioner to study French production, "to report the causes which contributed to the enormous increase which has taken place in the production of munitions in that country notwithstanding that one-eighth of the country and five-eighths of its metallurgical activity are in the hands of the enemy." The commission says in its report:

"It is remarkable that this fact is due to private enterprise. No factories have been subsidized by the government nor have loans of any kind been made to the owners. The owners have at comparative prices taken orders from the government and on the strength of these orders have purchased land, built factories, procured machinery and now depend on the contract prices for reimbursement of their outlay and gaining the profit to which they are entitled."

Some interesting conclusions can be drawn from this statement of the business-like and quiet manner in which France with the enemy in its land applied common sense to business propositions.

The testimony coming from a country whose first act was to create numberless bureaus and commissions and divisions and government control, has great weight.

Night work for women was not looked upon with any great favor by the French government, which adopted it only through great necessity. It was not until the end of 1916, when all the women accustomed to wage earning were employed, that a call was made for those who were at home, wives and widows of soldiers, receivers of allotments, and refugees. Then all factories ran night shifts when the women worked the same hours as men. These were ten hours and sometimes twelve. There was a break of from one to two hours in the middle of the day and one hour for midnight.

The British commission said that the women and men, too, for that matter, used the rest periods in singing and enjoying themselves and went back to their work refreshed, showing no signs of fatigue. When the work was progressing some time it was ordered that one day of rest weekly should be given all women workers. That day was Sunday, as a general thing, though another day could be substituted. Wages were regulated by women doing women's work being paid the normal rate for the district for that kind of work. Women on new work caused by the war were paid on the basis of the rates for the sort of work most resembling it previously. Women doing the same work as men, if they did it wholly, received the same pay as men. The French did not establish training schools and camps for women's instruction as did the British. That sort of work was done directly in the factories.

Numberless French reports convey most interesting details respecting the methods pursued during the war, the summary being that all was done with as little exploitation, multiplication of offices and expenses as possible. Factory

inspectors and a department created checked tendencies to overwork; restrictions on night work for women were immediately made and inspectors were ordered in June, 1916, not to allow the employment of girls under 18 or of women between 18 and 21 unless there was absolute scarcity of other labor. Particular stress was laid on sparing women who had young children. In February, 1918, orders were given to abolish all night work for women as soon as possible. Many young women were working at night; "when either the father or mother or both parents work on a night shift they demand that their young sons or daughters work with them as in this way it is easier to arrange the family life with respect to meals, sleep and the proper oversight of the young people."

It was noted by the British Commission that all work except tool room work, setting up and floor labor was paid at piece rate, the rates of men and women being the same. However, it was discovered by the government that employers had been cutting the piece work rates on account of the dexterity of the workers, and an order was given that this must cease. It is recorded with significant stress by the commission: "No general demand for advance in wages has been made by the working people since the commencement of the war." This Elysian state did not continue all through, though, for the advance in the cost of living brought some strikes in the close of 1916 and by August of 1917, rates had been fixed so that women received from 77c to \$2.70 a day for day work. Piece work rates were left unchanged.

Before the war broke out, England out of 4,500,000, had 3,235,000 women working in textile, clothing, food, paper, printing and metal business. Clerks, agricultural workers, civil service, government and transport service, other occupations and the 1,750,000 in domestic service brought up the aggregate of women accustomed to work for wages to 5,000,000 as a conservative estimate. The outbreak of the war was disastrous to those working in the clothing, millinery, dressmaking and laundry business.

In the United States these trades were also somewhat affected, but in this country by far the greatest trouble was their desertion in droves to enter the lucrative munition works. In Great Britain, as here, the clothing workers were the first to resume and increase as the demand for immediate delivery of soldiers' wear became imperative. In England and the rest of the British isles a public campaign was at once started to have women enter munition

factories. It was well met. But this, however, cannot be called an increase of women workers as long as it was from habitual wage earning women that the places of men conscripted into the army were filled. It was rather a transfer of labor.

Practically the same shifting of labor from non-essential to essential war industries in the state of Connecticut can be seen by analysis of the factory report of the factory division of the Department of Labor and Factory Inspection of this state as well as from the figures which will be elsewhere given in this report. Popularly it is supposed that labor has increased about 60% in the state. This has been fostered by the desertion of one branch of labor for another that is more the center of public attention. So much attention has been focussed on the munition plant that it might readily be thought by those outside the state that it was the one industry going in Connecticut. Quite the contrary. There have been many other concerns which contributed essentially to war work and to prosperity. Another factor not taken into calculation has been the abandonment of dress-making, teaching, millinery, cooking, waitress work, domestic service to gain the profits and greater freedom of the factory. This swells the aggregate.

To take the figures of the Factory report which will differ somewhat from the figures of this, as they were taken at different times and do not comprise as many industries as the Industrial report has grouped together: In 1913 there were employed in the factories, pure and simple, 127,297 men and 43,380 women, or a total of 169,677; in 1914, 176,214 men and 67,002 women, or a total of 243,406; in 1915, 238,267 men and 67,092 women, or a total of 305,359; in 1916, 244,616 men and 75,981 women, total 320,597; in 1917, 269,151 men and 79,360 women, or a total of 347,511; in 1918, 355,994, of whom 269,007 are men and 86,991 women. The increase from the close of 1913 to the close of 1918 was 41,710 men, or 32.76%; of women 44,611 or 105%. The increase from our entrance into the war in 1917 to the close of 1918 is from 268,151 men to 269,007, 856, or over 3%, and from 79,360 women to 86,981, or 7,627, or practically 10%. From 1913 to 1914 the increase in the number of factory employees was 48,917 men and 24,712 women; from 1914 to 1915 62,053 men and no increase of women; from 1915 to 1916, 6,349 men and 4,889 women; from 1916 to 1917, 23,535 men and 2,279 women; from 1917 to 1918, 856 men and 7,627 women. In all, the increase in the total

number of factory workers from 1913 to 1918 was from 169,677 to 355,994, or 186,317, or 109.21%.

This increase in factory workers was due to the fact that the state produced not only war supplies for outside but over 45% of all the munitions used in the late war by us, and about 70% of the other essentials which were necessary for the successful carrying on of the war. From the beginning of 1915 there was a steady influx of labor from other states to Connecticut, the men coming from Vermont, New Hampshire, northern New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, from Kansas and from Canada. Very few women came in comparison with the men. Much of that labor returned even before the war ended.

This was caused by labor disputes over bonuses which were offered and which agents for manufacturers persuaded men were to be granted on altogether different terms from those actually prevailing. Much trouble over the bonus system developed in the largest ammunition factory in Hartford and as a result hundreds of the employees left in 1917, returning to New York, Vermont and New Hampshire.

Since the armistice has been signed there has been a rapid cancellation of contracts, it being stated in a dispatch from Washington that \$55,000,000 contracts were to be cancelled in this state. Before the ending of the week of December 15th thousands of men had been released from work. Women have not been relieved in as great numbers, but women who went to work simply for patriotic motives, who were working part time and whose ages prevented them from continuing in work, left as soon as the armistice was a fact and others are now returning to other occupations. There is no scarcity of positions for women in clerking, housework, nurse maids, laundry, office work of various kinds, insurance companies, etc. In fact, there is not likely to be so great and lasting a displacement of industrial workers as there is to be a gradual transfer. The high percentage attained in factory employment, it must be carefully emphasized, was caused by the lowering in other employments. These employments are necessities, more than 87% essential to the community.

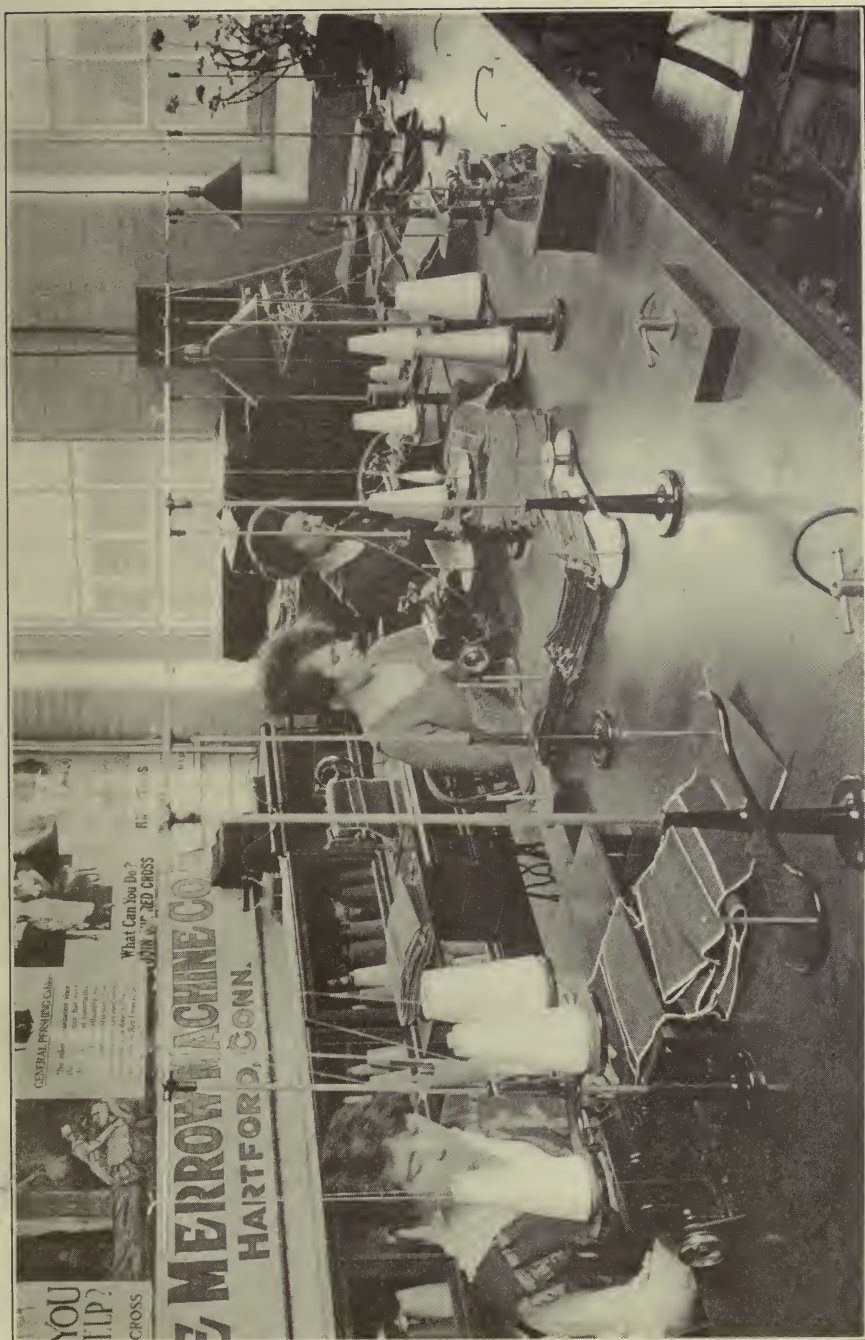
In the factories themselves, many engaged on war work contracts are to be immeasurably benefited by return to private work and their own supervision. It is asserted by many, and observation in a few cases bore out the assertion, that the knowledge they could go higher than the owners and managers of the factory has not resulted in steady

application, production and efficiency. Instead of allaying dissatisfaction it has in some cases with certain grades of people, by no means unintelligent, caused them to be on the *qui vive* for something of which to complain. One result was the hedging around of a worker with so many restrictions he preferred to remain where he was rather than to go through the ordeal of changing, and thus labor was in that respect stabilized. On the other hand, the possibility of appeals, the knowledge of higher wage rates obtainable and of retroactive decisions really made a labor turnover, if we accept its scientific definition as being the loss of man power, through laying off, sickness, drunkenness, etc., as well as through being discharged and quitting.

One effect of the high wages and constant raising was that men who were making the first would take a number of days off instead of working continuously. The number of days lost in this way has been considerable and in many industries caused the need of overtime, whereby some of the culprits were gainers on account of being paid more for a situation they had helped to create.

According to a survey made in the interval from the 11th of November, 1918, to the 6th of January, 1919, the assurance may be made that there is no special cause for long continued alarm over the industrial situation in Connecticut nor fear that conditions of serious labor unemployment, slacking of industry and general depression are to prevail a great length of time. In fact, it may be asserted that the attitude taken by some that is to be the state of affairs is productive of uneasiness, restlessness and direct mischief both to the employer and the employed. There is no special cause, either for gloomy foreboding as to the future of any other state. There has been gross exaggeration of the number of men discharged from war plants and the number of employed in the various cities. It was stated that in Bridgeport alone in the week ending January 4th there were about 17,000 idle as a result of discharge from the munition and other war plants. A careful and detailed examination disclosed just 5,000 who remained idle. What is true of Bridgeport is true of other cities.

One of the state employment agencies in the last fortnight of December placed several hundred men with a large iron concern, and another state employment agency sent not only men to this concern and others of a similar nature, but also sent a large number to a federal employment agency which was seeking to help out the situation. The largest concern employing men and women in the state is in New Haven,



A RED CROSS ROOM DURING WAR.



A TYPICAL MODERN FACTORY.
J. & J. Cash, Ltd., South Norwalk.



A CLUB HOUSE ON THE SAME PREMISES.

the Winchester Repeating Arms Co. That concern rose from 16,640 in July 1916, of whom 2,717 were women and 100 boys, to 14,702 men and 5,549 women in November, 1918. The largest employer in Hartford had 3,100 in 1916, 5,353 in February, 1918, and on November 1st, 1918, had 6,500 men and 1,500 women. The normal capacity of the New Haven concern will be about 11,000, of the Hartford not less than 2,600. The accretion to the man-power of these concerns was made up of more than 75% labor from other institutions. Even clerks from insurance and bank offices and teachers were among the workers as well as women who had never worked anywhere before. Added to this was a large number from the typewriter concerns, the laundries, stores and typists, the school classes, tobacco workers, farm hands, trades, and unskilled labor. Students who were exempted from the draft were working in large numbers and quit in October when the colleges opened.

In Waterbury the labor situation will not be so acute as in other towns for the concerns there have an abundance of orders to be filled, apart from their war work, and will have to attend to the waiting list, while it is a certainty that other orders will come in every day.

On the 19th of October, 1918, the State and the United States employment agencies being unable to help the Waterbury manufacturers by furnishing any men, application was made to the United States Ordnance Department through Mr. Darragh of the Washington Department, and 1,000 soldiers were sent from Camp Devens to the Chase Metal Works, the American Brass Co. and the Scovill Company. Two weeks later forty-two more soldiers from Camp Upton were detailed to the Scovill Company. These men, 1,042, have returned to camp and their number has to be deducted from the amount of unemployed.

In regard to unskilled labor, much of which was employed in the factories, there has been an acute shortage all over the state, but notably in the manufacturing centers for the entire year of 1918, reaching its climax in July. The wages that unskilled labor, and inefficient labor at that, commanded were more than skilled labor could draw a year before. It was not uncommon to pay \$4 and \$4.50 a day for 8 hours' work. Colored stevedores were receiving \$33.24 a week of 48 hours on the New London docks from the New England Navigation Co., the week of January 25, 1919. The state highway department, unable to secure unskilled labor on its road work had to employ jail help for which it paid \$3 a day to the institution. Even with this many roads

needing attention and many projected undertakings had to go by on account of the scarcity of ordinary help.

Farm help has been and will be needed. It must be borne in mind that the unskilled laborers, embracing the ordinary sort and agricultural workers, are not protected by union rules, but have to rely on the law of supply and demand for the high or low wage rate. Apropos of the common laboring man not being unionized, it is also fair to state that a very large proportion of tradesmen, highly skilled as well as moderately proficient, are not members of labor unions either, and the labor union in fighting for continuance of a high wage rate and lower hours is fighting for the benefit of men who have never evinced any interest in becoming members.

In the endeavor to have their contracts filled employment managers accepted material which they would have turned away at the first glance in former years. Bootblacks were utilized in some cities. A little instruction made the laboring element proficient at such tasks as milling, drilling and carrying cores and patterns. 90% of these workers went into the war work for the higher wages. The other sort of labor was also actuated by the wage question, as the frequent strikes, walkouts and demands proved. Before the war began in Europe wages of machinists ranged from \$16.50 to \$21 and \$25 a week, and the latter was considered high pay. The \$16.50 man received \$35 and \$40 during the war period and the \$25 man often as much as \$50 and more, over 100% advance.

Women were advanced in considerably less degree. Girls who received \$8 a week in dry goods stores or telephone office, or \$12 as stenographers and typists, thinking it good pay in 1914, now draw from \$13.50 to \$22 a week. Domestic help forsook the houses to join in the work, not so much for the greater pay but for the greater freedom and because of the patriotic flavor. The latter class of help, many of the insurance, bank, office and teaching class, the recruits from the laundries and other forms of industry will all be gradually reabsorbed. At present there is a disinclination to return to former work, fostered by the belief that wages will be kept up, willy nilly. The statement of Mr. Gompers and others that they must be kept up has held many a worker from a steady job which would take him away from the ranks of the unemployed.

The thoughtful laboring man, whether skilled machinist or tradesman of some other class, whether union man or non-union, must be able to forecast the inevitable situation

and see that war rates cannot be maintained with war bonuses, etc., or without them, though he undoubtedly will also see that return to the rate of wages current in 1914 is not a prospect which he desires to face, inasmuch as the cost of living will not proportionately descend. Much work at high rate is still to be had in and out of the state. Many areas have insufficient help today and will need workers for the whole of the year on the contracts which are to be finished. Other industries in the state which have deferred orders are now going to take them up and demand for American production is bound to be great instead of small for export trade.

As stated before, the hard cold fact of figures as embodied in the factory and the industrial report of the state shows that there has not been such an increase of workers in the state as popularly held. Out of state workers are leaving for other fields. The typewriter industries in Hartford reabsorbed a large proportion of the men and women who left them helter skelter for munition work or who were let go to aid the war work. Several of these concerns are still hiring women and men.

An element which is going to cause some serious situations is undoubtedly the introduction of women in men's jobs. Miss Mary Van Kleeck said on Thursday, December 5th, 1918, "It is not to be assumed these women went into the work for patriotism. Not more than 5% of them did that. They were after the money." While the investigator would increase the percentage of patriotic women more than Miss Van Kleeck's allowance, she was right in the main. She is now addressing gatherings of women in the Middle States and elsewhere urging them to form trades unions in order to retain their pay and protect themselves. It has been the policy of the officials of the United States Department of Labor at Washington to encourage the forming of trades unions.

Labor unionism has a hard problem before it if these women do not take the advice of Miss Van Kleeck and numerous others. The refusal means the cutting down of the man's pay, for rather than be out of work the women will work for a lower wage and will do just as good work at that rate as men do at a higher.

Whatever the outcome, there is one conclusion which can be deduced from the ordinary proceedings of the business and social world for the time elapsing from the Declaration of Independence to the entrance of our country into the war. We cheerfully and gladly threw aside all our traditions and

practices and welcomed any ruling, whether bureaucratic or autocratic, that added to the chances of winning the war. Consequently, every experimenter and socialist and longer for position started a new commission, division or bureau. The war is over. These excrescences should at once be lopped off and the United States return to the plain, common-sense method of business and government that enabled it to be the financial and moral savior of the world, and to the freedom of individual rights that made the millions of bureau-ridden Europe come here to draw a full breath and amass education, self-reliance and a full purse.

Work that may profitably and equitably be left to the skilled or unskilled laborer who may need work is that which has been proposed to the highway commission to be done by prisoners from the state prison, jails and reformatories. It might have been possible to do this with more or less success while the war was raging and there was a demand for men across and at training camps, but there is no excuse for it when free men are available. The employment of prison labor at the expense of free labor is un-American and should not be permitted.

The state has to guard against too great a departure from former usages and too eager adoption of transcontinental methods which prevail there because there is no chance for any other. The question of the economic situation had better be left to the employer and the employee. Each is vitally interested and can manage to get together better without rather than with overseers. While labor may think that some of the recent enactments were distinctly to its advantage, in the opinion of the writer they were simply war measures which should be annulled now without waiting for the signing of peace. The laborer is not only worthy of his hire but he should have the privilege of vending it and selecting his own environment. That he can ever market it at a price which can be received without the co-operation of others is not possible nor will a fair minded laborer so desire. Economic sabotage would be a calamity as bad as socialism under the guise of another name.

What capital and labor need is more individual liberty, not action under centralized and remote authority. A man should have a right to govern his own business as he governs his own home with decent regard for the rights of others and willingness to help them and others. A man's factory or shop ought to be and is his own personal property in which he has the right to shape a policy and whose inmates

he should have the liberty to choose. They in turn should have the right to remain if he treats them equitably or leave if he is unjust, and they should have the right to value their labor as he has the right to reject or accept their terms. Local conditions, the law of supply and demand must be the arbiter. Outside conditions enter in as comparative because it would be as manifestly unjust to ask a man in Bridgeport to labor for what would be a fair compensation in Saybrook, as it would be for a man in Saybrook to demand what he would receive in Bridgeport. The general wage rate as fixed by unions and capital cannot vary much but it has to vary some according to the law of demand and supply.

Nor could an arbitrator from Kalamazoo have full comprehension which would enable him to pass with judgment on a situation in Clinton. Should the eight hour law be extended it will afford employment to more, doing away with the need of overtime. As far as exemplified, this centralized ruling has been productive of these conditions: Dissatisfaction, incompetency, discourtesy, expense, it is distinctly un-American and we are too early from the war to be willing to have Prussianized systems foisted on us no matter how filtered. The doctrine of individual rights was fought for in 1775, reiterated in 1865, and should be confirmed and cemented indissolubly in 1919 rather than insidiously disintegrated.

There is only one fair way to fix wages, efficiency. Labor unions and manufacturers should understand this, and also if they wish to have justice they want to be able to have representatives of the people say who shall legislate for the people. It is absolutely impossible to put private enterprises, great and small, under the control of a monopoly, whether a government or a trust, and have no serious resultant evils. The evil in the first place is the fostering and development of a great political machine which makes the control of the enterprise secondary to the question of the advantage to which it may be turned politically. The trust has the disadvantage of smothering competition, but it has the redeeming feature of serving the customer more expeditiously and more cheaply than could a dozen of its united parts if standing alone. The government control has no record of expeditious, satisfactory and cheap service in any country in which it has been tried.

One proof of the exodus of the transient worker is shown in the numerous "rooms for rent" signs which are displayed throughout the rooming house section in the big industrial centers. It must be borne in mind that many of the more

than 70,000 men who were drafted either for over-seas or camp service will never come back to their former occupations, having gone on the long journey to the bourne whence none return. Some have obtained employment in other states. Others have decided to remain over-seas and a number will be retained in the army and navy which prudence forces us to enlarge.

Further, our immigration is at a standstill and is likely to be for at least five years. There will be no influx from abroad but rather an exodus from here. The American Federation of Labor at its meeting in December, 1918, received from its secretary, Frank Morrison, a resolution asking Congress to ban immigration for a period of five years. That resolution is hardly necessary or wise. It is likely to be a serious question where we are to get the labor for our public work rather than how we are to reject it. The war-ridden countries need all the labor they can obtain. Steamship companies are already beset with inquiries from men and women who wish to return to their native land and who believe they can get along well there under the increased demand for work and increase in wages. Many of these people have been earning phenomenal wages for the past four years and they are eager to return to Italy and Poland to enrich their home land.

Returning and disabled soldiers and sailors have to be helped and placed. The other class of workers temporarily out of place or shifted will be harmed rather than helped by any endeavor to standardize wages at present or by too much interference. In the opinion of the investigator the employer and the employee have been sufferers from too much interference and as long as it continues there will be lack of mutual understanding and co-operation.

THE EFFECT OF THE INFLUENZA EPIDEMIC ON THE INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE STATE.

The most unexpected evil which affected the industrial workers of the state in cutting down their ranks and halting their production, and also seriously menaced men and women in every class, was the epidemic of so-called Spanish Influenza which swept over the state in the fall of 1918 and which has continued in a lessened degree through the month of January, 1919.

Fortunately it came too late to greatly cripple the war work of the great army that stayed at home. Had it come three months earlier it would not only have periled the success of the American army but also have hampered the Allies from winning through our help. Its cause and character have not yet been scientifically determined. However, this can be frankly stated and should be stated with emphasis: It found existing health regulations easily conquered. Its spread and effects were in no small part attributable to carelessness, over-confidence and under estimation of its danger at the critical period when a masterly grasp would have checked its advance.

Three hundred thousand people of the conservative estimate of one million and a quarter in this state were victims in a greater or less degree. Over 6,000 died.

Proper power delegated to boards of health, proper equipment and promptness on the part of boards of health, proper enforcement of health regulations would have resulted in the saving of lives of thousands some of whom would have been of great benefit to the state.

Some individuals attacked were careless of others' safety; some were ignorant of means of defense and delayed consulting medical skill until the disease had a firm hold; others were too weakened to make resistance. A pitifully large number were so circumstanced that protection by isolation was out of the question. Many were succumbing before they realized they were in danger; Connecticut, like many other states, lacked, at the outset and in some towns, all the way through, prompt and efficient coordination of one locality, whether city or village, with its neighbors. Much precious time was wasted in questions of authority and in

making preparations which should have been existent before the emergency arose.

A few boards of health were torpid and wobbling, but it would be unjust to make a sweeping criticism of all. The majority did splendid work from the beginning. In many towns there has been too much of a niggardly and restrictive policy for the boards to accomplish as much as they should.

It cannot be guaranteed that the disease has had its run. Analyses have not yet offered hope that science can successfully prevent its becoming recurrent. Its sporadic returns have been both violent and deadly.

All industrial concerns had their work interrupted. Several were menaced with complete cessation. One corporation had over three thousand on its sick list out of a force of fifteen thousand; another having seven hundred and fifty employes had thirty-five deaths in a week.

The epidemic started possibly a week before the official date, September 10, as many at first assumed it was the usual fall cold, and failed to report. September 18th, 1918, the state board of health made the cases reportable and a systematic endeavor was made to control the situation. From September 10th to October 31st, the number of cases in the state was 87,097 and of deaths 5,022, or a little over 5.7%. The entire number of cases up to the end of November as given to the writer, December 3rd, 1918, was 93,620 and of deaths 6,265. It is worth noting that it was generally believed by the first of November that the plague was well on the wane, yet in this month the cases showed 6,523 and the deaths 1,243, or over 19%. December 7 showed the total number of cases reported as 102,797. January, 1919, reported an outbreak of the same in localities widely separated.

It has to be remembered that many were ill who recovered and who never had the cases reported. The fact that so many physicians and nurses were absent from the state on account of war work made it more difficult to combat the disease. However, the state board of health is undertaking a campaign which will undoubtedly build up a strong and capable organization all over the state for the curbing of the plague if it become recurrent.

The death rate was higher in Waterbury than in any other town, being 7.5 per thousand. New Britain came next with 6.4 and Hartford had 4.2. Willimantic's rate was not figured out as this report goes to press, but the town was sorely hit. New Haven, Bridgeport and many of the

small villages where manufacturing industries were carried on were afflicted, although in the case of the latter it might be assumed comparative isolation from traffic and travel would have been a safeguard.

One of the cities which felt the force of the disease in the beginning was New London. However, at no time was its industries so crippled that they had to cease running. The first act of the acting mayor and the health physician was to order closed churches, theatres, schools, halls, all gathering places of people, a measure of wisdom when one remembers the immense floating population of this railroad, naval and army base. Hundreds of men daily cross the ferries, hundreds come from the naval station, the state pier, the submarine base, and from the island and mainland forts. The cases and losses at the government bases were cared for by its own physicians who largely kept their own counsel.

The story of the work done by one great manufactory in the city of Waterbury is here given because Waterbury was the manufacturing town most stricken and because it conveys a lesson that all may con. Waterbury is a hive of metal industries in addition to its other forms of occupation, and has plants whose business success is unparalleled. All of these have emergency and rest rooms for men and women, and more than half have graduate nurses and regular physicians in attendance. The others have facilities in their emergency rooms for treatment of about everything that can happen in work shops. Where a physician is not regularly in the establishment, he holds clinics on certain days or else has the hurt and ill come to his office.

The Scovill Manufacturing Co., averaging about 14,000 employees, has a hospital with a large operating room, a waiting room, rest rooms for men and women, a superintendent's office and clerical aid. The staff consists of two physicians and surgeons, a head nurse who is assisted by three women nurses and two orderlies and there is a visiting nurse. In addition, since it devoted so much of its work to munitions for the United States, there has been a physician whose whole duty consisted in observing the effect of occupations on the individual workers.

It has made a policy for years under the management of Mr. John H. Goss of exercising a strict surveillance over the health of its employees, carrying out a system whose inception and success were largely due to the head nurse, Miss Nora O'Brien. Each employee is physically examined with a view to giving him or her a line of work to which he or she is specially fitted. The examination is not for the pur-

pose of grading the applicant in a class which gives him a lower wage earning capacity, but for his own protection and that of his employer, who as a result of placing him where an incipient affection will not be developed or where a well developed one will not be aggravated, protects his health and enables him to earn as much as he can. He frequently earns as much and sometimes more than a man who is 100% physically.

The advantage does not end here. The man is required to report at regular intervals at the hospital, where he is examined and he is studied and cared for so that he really has for nothing the benefit of treatment he probably would never have been able to afford. Also the employer derives benefit by lowering his labor turnover, getting a steadiness of work that otherwise would be lacking and having the assurance that he can reasonably figure on having his work done at a certain time. In addition to this the head nurse and her assistants have the help so impressed with the truth that prevention is nine-tenths, that as soon as an accident, however trivial occurs, the injured come to the hospital for treatment.

This apparent digression is made for the purpose of showing how systematically this concern takes care of its help and how well equipped it was to do the work which it did and which undoubtedly was the means of saving Waterbury from a terrible calamity. When the epidemic swooped down on Waterbury it raged from end to end, regardless of race, condition or residence. The factories were not spared. Each day found the list of those who thought they could fight off the incipient illness decreasing. The family physician called in after the disease had frightened the sufferers found himself handicapped at the beginning by lack of the usual remedies, notably quinine. In many cases he was afraid the weakened heart would not recover from administration of the usual remedies. Prohibitionists will probably never know how much whiskey was used there and all over the state, and at army and navy bases. Remember, the work was not now to care for the factory's afflicted but for the sick of the whole city. The resources of the Scovill plant being exhausted, outside accommodations were secured and the city opened two places as hospitals and the Country Club of Waterbury gave its spacious home for the use of the convalescents. The young men who had volunteered at the call to act as grave diggers did not stop at this service, they went right into the places where the sick were treated and into homes. All kinds of services they gladly ac-

cepted, they washed floors and they washed faces, they washed dishes and they washed babies' diapers, they even fed the little ones from nursing bottles with tenderness and skill. They helped save thousands of lives.

While the city was frantic with fear, there stepped into the breach a woman other than the factory force, taking charge of the isolation hospital opened on October 5th. She knew more about the city, its needs, its lacks, its equipment than any other person. For years she had been fighting the tuberculosis plague fearlessly and well. Of an intensely patriotic race, Mary Gormly had volunteered to go to France and was ready for the journey when the call came nearer home. Almost single-handed she fought for the cause, sparing not herself, neither sleeping nor eating, until overwrought nature gave way and she fell a victim as truly a martyr to duty as any vaunted heroine of history, for she gave her life with all that life had for others and what more can man or woman do?

One after another, Chase Park House, Temple Hall, the Country Club, the Day Nursery, the Elks' Home, and other places were turned over to the work. Now began the battle in earnest, the city under its Mayor and Board of Health and all the volunteer associations, the associated factories, The International Silver Co., The Lynch Realty Co., The Farrel Foundry, The American Brass Co., The Chase Co., and others of smaller extent. Boston sent nurses. The Rotary Club made a canvass. The Scovill Manufactory by general consent took command of the battle, its head nurse aided by the physician who was studying conditions, with the help of the regular force of the factory.

Finding volunteers from outside were impossible to obtain in time, the head nurse went into the munition shops and called on the women there for aid, asking that those who had any hospital training, those who had cared for the sick outside their own homes, those who had cared for the sick in their homes and those who were ignorant of such work, but willing to aid, step forth. Out of the eager volunteers forty women were selected and divided into classes, graded according to the call, and these women did valiant service. Other factories took similar action.

In going through the city to the homes of those who were ill, the factory workers necessarily met with cases of illness other than their own people. No one was caring for them. Tenements were entered where a dozen persons were sick in four or five rooms which had neither heat, light nor toilet facilities. Some homes had an abundance of food but no

one to cook it or care for the sick. Others were shockingly bare. In some places the sinks were choked with filth, the toilets were broken and unsafe and in others they were locked up. In some places father and mother lay dead and children were starving. As the workers went along women would cry out from windows begging for help and food. For several weeks the factory furnished food and blankets and other necessities to 258 families, and when the writer visited Waterbury on November 4th, 1918, it was still employing a force to attend to these matters and sending out blankets for the children who were out at the Country Club recovering. It also had its force of nurses doing outside work.

A pitiful, yet a heart and mind opening scene was that presented at the Country Club; the glass enclosed verandas were filled with cots, all occupied by children, every bit of space was utilized to shelter some sufferer drawn back from facing the long journey; all through the big rooms, glowing with soft light and caressing their worn bodies with grateful heat, were scattered men and women, babies and older children; some in groups, laughing and rejoicing in recovery, others wanly smiling, unable to laugh for they were thinking of their dead. One woman sat, saying nothing, but tightly clasping with long skeleton-like fingers a wee pale baby while her eyes never left its face; even though she knew death was driven away, she feared to relax her vigil. Another was seated at the piano, playing with the touch and enjoyment of the born musician and around her a rapt circle fascinated by the old fashioned melodies.

Up and down the long rooms were racing six children, the oldest perhaps ten, and the youngest, whose chubby little legs ambitiously sought to hold up his body, might have been as many months. He howled in sheer joy as he thought he was chasing his brothers. A bright young nurse, one of the imported from Boston, captured the ringleader and the musician stopped and soon had the entire brood encircled. They were all hers. Yes, indeed, she had been sick and everyone of them, but praise be to God, and to the kind people, they were getting well. Oh, you should see them eat. Dear, dear, but when we were leaving the house I thought I saw death grinning over my shoulder. She stopped and looked at them as they watched us with attentive eyes. She choked up, "I'd die for any one of them and to think that God left them all to me while so many poor women have their hearts struck." "Do you work at Scovill's, or does your husband work there?" "My husband? He's

dead. He was taken from me when she was born. No, I don't work there, but a niece of his does and they heard I was smitten with all the children. They took care of me. Oh, many's the mother that died with her babe and many's the home that is broken up."

Seated at the table was a bright-looking young man, one of those who had volunteered, and who had succumbed to the disease. He was now pretty well on the road to health. He was modest about telling of his work but when asked how he had done the things he did, said: "Gee, it was pretty tough, some of it, but it had to be done and you wouldn't want to ask any fellow to do it, so you had to do it yourself." Over in the corner sat a youngish Italian man. His labor-hardened face was illumined by bright, unusually big eyes which were constantly fastening on the door. When his gaze was intercepted he flashed a bright grin which swiftly passed into the same intent anxiety. His name was Pete, he had been brought there from a wretchedly poor home wherein his wife and children lay dying. His was an extra hard case and even now he was in great danger. Day after day he had been asking nurses and doctors for news from home and day after day he received the same reply. They were all well and soon would be better. "Why no come see me?" "Oh, give them time, Pete, you know they've been pretty sick." "Yes, yes, me great trouble. Me very sorry. Hope to see my wife soon, then I walk away better." "We'll have to tell him, poor fellow, but it is a tough thing." Wife and children were dead.

Scenes as bad as these and some even worse, took place in other cities. Willimantic had cases where the doctors had to rush from one patient to another. Hartford had a case in a house on Capitol Avenue where a dozen people were all ill without succor and the conditions were deplorable; in one city, only the delay in getting the undertaker prevented a young mother from being buried alive.

The moral of this reference to the epidemic can be easily fastened on without the aid of hooks and eyes. Only the fact that the war was ending prevented it from being an international calamity, as it was. It meant a serious loss of lives and of millions of dollars in production. It has cost cities much money. That money should have been spent in prevention. That such a menace to health and industry may repeat itself is probable. That preparation should be made to prevent such a repetition happening is an imperative duty. The state, and every city and town in the state, should set to work at once systematically and intel-

ligently to meet such an emergency. It will cost money but it is the people's money and it should be used to protect them rather than have to be spent in fighting the disease after it has attacked them. Boards of health are expensive and injurious adjuncts unless they are properly supported, for the fact that a city or town has a board seems to lull the people into a sense that it is the board's business to do this or that. But the board of health can do nothing unless it has power and money. It is unjust and picayune to criticise its failures if those be due to a niggardly and suspicious policy on the part of town or city or to the using the board as a part of a political machine. It deserves criticism if it becomes a political machine itself and should be promptly put out of business.

A rather careful survey of the situation created by the late epidemic justifies the conclusion that more power and means should be given to every board of health in the state.

SAFETY PRECAUTIONS.

Safety precautions gained more attention after the outbreak of the war. Munition plants and factories whose output entailed the using of dangerous or health affecting acids and combinations were subjected to more rigid inspection. Orders were given by both the Department of Labor and the Department of Factory Inspection requiring that chemicals, acids, explosives and like combinations be stored outside the buildings at a distance sufficiently remote to protect the workers. The factory inspectors also looked diligently after the conditions of machines and were particularly insistent on the safeguarding of health of polishers, grinders and buffers. Orders were uniformly quickly obeyed, the manufacturers being most anxious to have safety the first consideration.

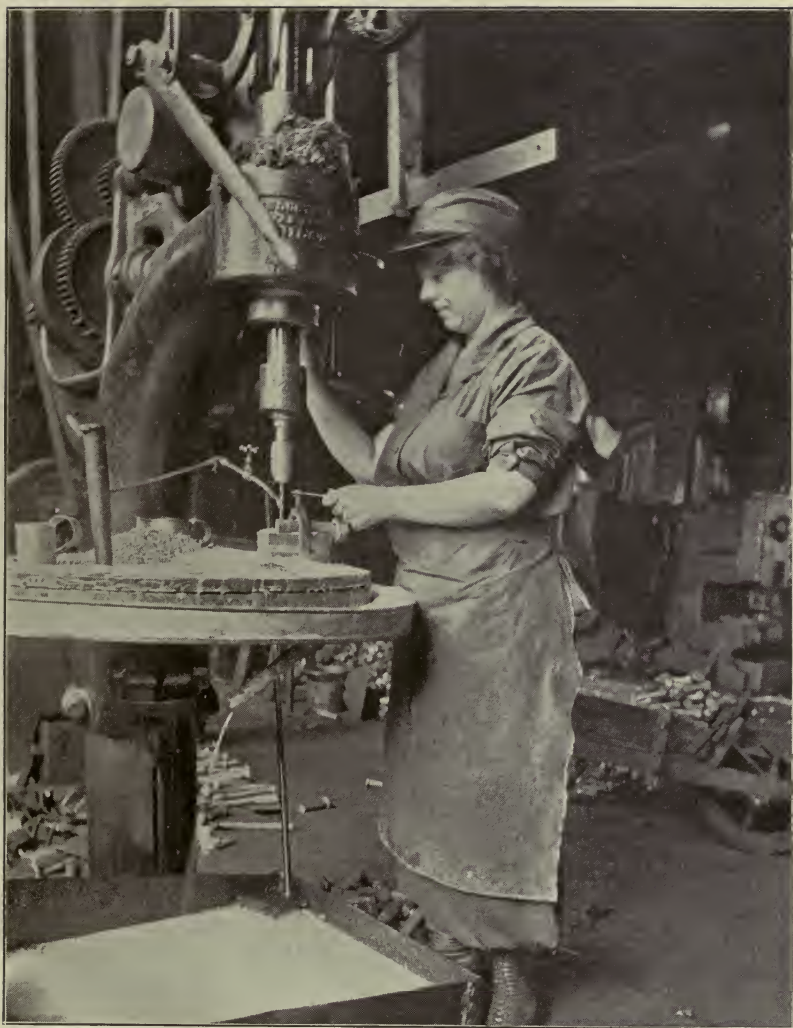
Considering the crowding of more machines and seats into space and the narrowing of many passages to accommodate the increase of workers, the industrial investigator insisted in all factories visited on having clear signs or lights directing the way to the various fire escapes so that no one, however inexperienced or obtuse could fail to understand their purport, through means of the red letters and red color. Many girls were employed who wore their hair either confined with a bow at the base of the head, hanging loosely, or in braids. They were ordered to have it done up while at work, both because of the possibility of danger when near machinery and also because in such places as candy factories and kitchens, it was desirable on the ground of neatness.

Since women have gone into work, in brass and copper industries and on heavy machine work, handling oil covered tubes, cutting and bending pipes, standing on a floor that is unavoidably greasy and sand covered, it was thought much better for the safety and health of the workers that they should wear a large apron or a uniform and in all cases have heavy soled shoes. In 1915 the investigator suggested to munition workers, notably in Bridgeport, the wearing of thick nets which should confine and protect the hair. Since that date the work of women in munition plants was extended from cartridge making, drilling, milling, filling, assembling and inspecting, to many other heavier branches

and a protective garb while at work in the factory became a necessity for health and safety. It has been the general custom of workers to change their dresses to older ones; some changed their shoes but the majority did not. A few made no changes whatever. The heavier and more dirty work, however, required a different style. At first there was considerable opposition, added to by the jests of men who nearly created a riot when the overall uniform was adopted in a Bridgeport plant. So much trouble was caused that the welfare supervisor wished to make a compromise on a large apron of the bungalow style, only fitting more closely, something after the sort that is worn in laundries. However, those who had adopted the overalls found them so handy and comfortable that they won out in the end, though they never attained the popularity that safety and convenience warranted. Had the war continued there is no question but that their use would have become general. Nevertheless, there are still many places where women have to work in dust, grease and steam, and where the wearing of a work uniform is a distinct advantage, saving time, lessening the fatigue caused by caring for ordinary clothing, the binding of which prevents ease and freedom of movement, and what is of some importance to the manufacturer, adds to efficiency and production.

In the French, British and German factories the garb was used from the early days of the war and was of much aid to quick and efficient production. The women were actually obliged to wear a work garment adapted to the particular work in which they were engaged. In chemical works the uniform was fireproofed and goggles were worn over the eyes; in airplane work, especially doping, sleeves were tightened; fastened at wrist; with an apron over the uniform; a cap was also worn. In metal processes, trousers or knickers with a tunic, leggings and gloves were approved garb; where grinding and dust were to be feared, breathing tubes were used. The material of the garments was either heavy or medium woolen, heavy or thin cotton, according to the temperature of the place where the work was to be done. Gloves had been used in munition and brass working plants before the more general use in Great Britain, but the workers have never been partial to them, as they thought they could not work as quickly.

It is a fact that women will not take care of themselves as well as men in the matter of eating regularly and partaking of nourishing food, especially where they are on piece work. Unless there is a complete cessation of power, many



WOMAN OPERATING A DRILL PRESS. NOTE THE ROLLED-UP SLEEVES, THE CAP
AND THE LARGE PROTECTIVE APRON.

Courtesy of Travelers Insurance Co.



WOMAN OPERATING TAPPING MACHINE. NOTE OVERALL UNIFORM.
Courtesy of Travelers Insurance Co.

of them will hurry through their lunch and return to the machines. Where they are assembling or inspecting, they usually cut the lunch hour when the work is paid other than by daily or hourly rate. They are also less careful about calling attention to breaks, defects or accidents to their machines. Even when they know there is something wrong, they begrudge the time required to have it adjusted and keep on to finish up, with the result that often they cause a greater injury to the machine and occasionally one to themselves. When they are hurt, if it be a trifling injury in their opinion, they will not go at once for treatment but try to manage until near the closing hour. In one factory there were several women who had lost forefingers and parts of their thumbs simply, as they admitted themselves, because they had stuck their fingers and thumbs in to help along. The latest case of this sort was on March 6, 1917, in Bridgeport, when the management of the factory ordered that type of machine taken out and today it is impossible for anyone to get caught no matter how the hands and fingers are used.

Today there is not a factory or small working place in the state which the factory inspectors have not equipped with emergency kits. There still are, however, many factories where an emergency hospital could be used with great benefit. It need not be an elaborate affair but it should have the means of attending to an accident until trained help arrives. Every factory employing help should have more than one physician in the neighborhood ready to come at short call. The sight of a man pinned by a giant screw pin tight to a gauge machine with his fellow-workmen powerless to help him while he writhed in agony waiting for a physician and ambulance from a hospital to arrive ought to be enough to compel general precaution against such a condition being repeated.

All machines requiring guards have them today. There are also skirt rails placed on machines where women are sewing.

It has been suggested to the investigator that a recommendation be made for fire drills in large factories. There is a minimum of danger from fire in every large factory. The chances of a fire breaking out in a business house are much greater. Added to this there is no factory which has not provision for fire in some form though all have not in as great degree as they should. Some cling to the antiquated fire buckets filled with water. These receptacles are

generally stowed in out of the way nooks so that if there was a sudden demand for them, it would waste precious time to find them. The investigator, having asked about fire precaution in one concern, was an interested spectator of the attempt of the foreman to locate water pails which he knew existed "somewhere" in the factory. Four men were sent out to discover their location. It consumed just thirty-three minutes to exhume the pails from under stairways, back of boxes and out of dark corners. If this "protection" is to be allowed to continue every entrance should have a sign in red letters telling where the water pails can be found. Many printing offices and tobacco shops, always rather small places of business, have very inadequate protection, either pails or extinguishers.

Where the owners and managers are up to date, the sprinkler system protects even moderately sized plants. It is an investment which makes a good return in the increasing sense of safety and decreasing danger and also insurance rate. Even with the system there should be extinguishers. The large factories have hose and hydrants and fire companies. The Winchester Repeating Arms Co. of New Haven employed experienced men under the direction of a former fire chief for years, even before the beginning of the war work. Where there are neither firemen, hose nor sprinkler, there should be fire extinguishers in preference to the antiquated fire pails. The former are readily distinguished and much more effective. They are easy to find as they have to be hung up. It would be a good safety measure for insurance companies to insist that the extinguishers take the place of water pails.

It was stated to the investigator that fire drills are required by law in New York factories. Connecticut factories are given the benefit of the suggestion. The objection which is most tenable against their institution is the loss of time they would involve. But loss of time and production while something to be avoided are not as deplorable as loss of life.

For the calming of those who are afraid the recommendation will not be immediately followed, it is well to direct attention to the fact that catastrophies from fires are exceedingly small in the manufacturing concerns of the state. An easily arranged substitute for the fire drill is having the workers on each floor made familiar with the fire escapes and the ways of reaching them. This is already under way. An excellent help in every department or room would be a

portable extension ladder whereby a flame high up could be easily reached.

Far more needful of attention than the regular factory buildings, are numerous structures which have been utilized as factories, printing offices and shops by small concerns which only occupy a floor or two, or even part of a floor. These places house from nine to ten hours a day thousands of men and women who are almost without protection. In many of them the floors are old, like tinder, saturated with grease and roughened with splints so that swift progress over them means hurting the feet. The stairways are none too good, the lighting has to be fought for, the fire escapes are in obscure corners or reached through devious pathways leading into some other building. Generally the sprinkler is absent. Many of these buildings belong to estates and it is like searching for a needle in a haystack to find the owner or someone who will acknowledge the responsibility for spending money for improvements. There are more of these places than one would fancy are compatible with existing insurance laws and building inspectors. It would not take an X-Ray to discover them in any large city. Added to this, the accommodations for the help in the line of places to "wash up" are usually bad. The arrangements for toilets are travesties. They are a constant care and exasperation to the factory and other inspectors. To have them in decent condition it is necessary to camp there permanently and there is no time for that sort of thing. Orders that are within the province of the department are given and are carried out only sufficiently to comply with the requirements of the law. In a short time the work has to be done over again.

City boards of health, building inspectors and insurance companies should all unite in a vigorous campaign against these menaces to life and safety. In going through plants which are really well safeguarded, the investigator noticed some fire hydrants which were obstructed by trucks or heavy cases and some elevators, notably for freight, where the user was not always careful to have them well protected. In factories where the covering is a part of the flooring, every such part should have a railing about it or be indicated by a white danger line.

A habit which prevailed in many plants is for the worker, man or woman, to shade the electric light with a piece of paper. This should be stopped. The light should be properly protected so that it will not dazzle the worker's eyes

or fall improperly on the work. The use of the paper is dangerous and likely to cause a fire which might be hurtful to the worker, though it could not spread through the building. On a par with this is the custom of many women to wear paper confined with rubber bands about their wrists to save their sleeves. If they have to use this protection for cleanliness, it should be fireproofed. But they ought to have the regular overall uniform.

In one factory in the state where men are exposed to danger in boiler rooms, asbestos suits are being furnished for their use while working. These consist of trousers, coat, hood and gloves. It is hoped other firms will follow this one's example.

Every plant has a foreman or foremen. If it be large it has a number in each department. Besides looking after the output, it would be an easy job to look after the conditions of the room, department or floor every day, for a daily inspection would only occupy a few minutes. By this defective lighting, broken places in floors and worn treads of stairways, a frequent and dangerous condition, could be noted and remedied without compelling a factory inspector to go through the routine of issuing orders. There is an abundance of work for the inspectors without attending to small yet most important details which can be readily and quickly cared for by plant foremen.

HOUSING CONDITIONS

When the abrupt ending of the war in Europe thrilled the hearts of the people of the United States with joy and thanksgiving, the hum of the saw and the stroke of the hammer were heard in many industrial centers as the builders toiled to complete housing for the war workers. Peace ended the haste in some places; in others it stopped operations completely, but in many localities though building is proceeding more leisurely, it is still going on and will be continued and increased as in these towns there is to be no cessation of building of ships and other needs of the United States even on a peace basis. The shipbuilding industry throughout Connecticut will expand instead of contracting as it is inevitable that this country will extend its foreign trade.

Congestion of factory workers will be relieved, but inasmuch as general building operations, particularly the building of homes, were interrupted by the request of the government, there is certain to be an increase in the number of dwelling houses in such towns as Hartford and New Haven, even if the factory workers are not to occupy them. Others than they have been cramped for room and many large business enterprises which deferred their extension until after the war will start building as soon as permitted by release of material and workers.

In New Haven, Mayor FitzGerald in January 1919, recognizing the need of keeping the workers busy, authorized the expenditure of \$8,000,000 for necessary work for the city's improvement.

But no matter what building activity goes on in the future, there will be no great industrial housing constructive building as in 1917 and 1918 with which the record of how munition and other labor was cared for is concerned.

The state of affairs was serious in the centers of work. Owners of old buildings, however ramshackle, took no pains to renovate or improve them but rented them at prices which were out of all proportion to former rents or to their accommodations. In some places tenants who had lived for ten, fifteen and twenty years in a house and had made it attractive and homelike were warned to get out and immediately the rent was doubled and tripled on their suc-

cessor. Localities which would have been tabooed by respectable people were filled with strangers who knew nothing of neighborhood ethics and were glad to have a roof over their heads. Workers who came from Kansas, California and Montana often had to enlist the services of policemen to find a room to shelter them overnight, and if they were fortunate enough in securing one, they paid enough for it to hire a nice little flat in ante bellum days. In some cities old houses, minus electricity and modern heating apparatus rented for \$125 a month and the owners wanted more. These places, however, were profit-makers for the tenant who had in one specific case 45 lodgers paying \$1.25 a week, giving him a total of \$225 a month. In general, however, the advances in rents were not extortionate, when the landlord's side was presented to the various housing committees appointed to consider the situation. The landlord had to pay more taxes, more for the upkeep, more for material. With plumbers, carpenters and painters working eight hours and receiving the rates that they did, an advance of 10% or 15% did not cover the landlord's added expense. While in the case of the tenant, the high cost of living was cited and brought into the matter, it should be remembered that the high cost of living affected the landlord also as did the increase of coal, gas and electricity which had to be factors in houses rented furnished or unfurnished with heat, light, etc.

The Secretary of the Chamber of Commerce of New Haven, informed the investigator that New Haven could not be said to suffer from congestion in the sense that other cities were affected. The rents in New Haven did not advance as they did in Waterbury and Bridgeport, where the raise was estimated at a flat 60%, but it did advance some. One reason for the rise was the cessation of building. Another, of course, the increase of the cost of living. In New Haven there was nothing like the difficulty in getting accommodation for factory workers as there was in other towns. A large concern there which owned many houses even sold a row of them to a private owner.

Previous to the entry of this country into the war the munition plants in Waterbury, Bridgeport and New Haven had built many houses, purchased some and rented others for their help. Too much emphasis cannot be placed on the truth that the plants of the state were engaged in the production of war goods, some of them since the outbreak of the war in 1914 and had increased their help and accommodations before April, 1917, so that there was not so much

to be done after we entered the war. In Bridgeport, the Remington Union Metallic Cartridge Co. and the Remington Armory had invested in 1915 over \$2,000,000 in housing for its help. This is given in detail in the Industrial Report of 1915-1916 and need not be repeated here save to add that its building operations did not cease with this expenditure, and that it had dormitories in Bridgeport and Stamford for its women. Added to this, other concerns built houses. All these houses were attractive, well equipped homes. Further, the plans for increased housing for Bridgeport workers through government aid are too well known to be dwelt upon.

In Waterbury in 1915, the largest employer of labor there, the Scovill Mfg. Co., had purchased large tracts of land and had built and was building attractive six-room houses, thoroughly modern in equipment, which it sold to its workers at \$3,000, actually less than the cost price. At that time the cost of labor and material was far different. Since then the company had about 150 brick houses built which it offered to sell to its own employees at \$4,200 for an inside house and \$4,700 for an end house. The purchase price was applied in the form of rent, practically, and these houses were to be paid for at the rate of \$30. a month for the inside house and \$32 for the outside house. Through its employment agency in 1918, it listed rooms, tenements and boarding places where the worker from out of town could be sent. In addition to this, barracks were built in healthy, well lighted localities for men workers who were given a lighted, sanitary room for 50c. a week, and had the privilege of cooking their own meals in a kitchen remote from the sleeping rooms.

South Manchester, Bridgeport, Bristol, Waterbury and later than these, New London, all gave serious consideration to the housing of workers. The first four had the houses in occupation and have been building more. The latter, New London, is now building, but unlike the others, the work is being done with the co-operation of the federal and municipal governments.

South Manchester through the Cheney Bros., silk manufacturers, has for several years had accommodations for its workers and during the past year extended them greatly. The houses are substantially built and well planned. These houses are representative in every way.

The New Departure Co., Bristol, and the growth of the housing in that hustling little town, are examples of first

class providence in anticipating and filling the needs of the workers.

But it is not really, after all, what has been done sporadically or through exigency that can be considered the real housing problem solution. Housing that is to stay for steady industry such as that which exists in the cotton and woolen villages of northeastern Connecticut and the houses of the employees of such large concerns as the Cheney Brothers, the Waterbury, Bridgeport and Bristol plants is not all that affects the workers. This housing has to be held a permanent feature and the occupants are not transients but stable workers. Yet, the housing question, as it touches on the every day workers in all phases of industrial life, is the thing.

There will always be a class that has to earn its daily bread and house its family under the roof-tree of a landlord as there will always be the landlord to furnish the roof-tree. According to the high cost of living which is to continue for some years more there will be increase in the tenant class, and the health, comfort and general welfare of that class is a charge on the community in which it lives.

Man is entitled to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, but he will have precious little chance to catch that elusive third in the series unless he has some help while he is chasing that symbol of comfort, three dollars.

In this era when we are gravely and effectively concerned for the welfare of every nationality that can be made out of a combination of consonants, it should not be forgotten that charity, or rather, justice, should have some concrete evidence that we are interested in giving them help.

We cannot make very lofty idealized Americans out of people we allow to live in ill-kept, ill-smelling, ill-lighted, ill-ventilated tenements, lacking bathrooms and having apologies for closets that are an offense to the senses. When the walls are covered with dirty, greasy wallpaper which even in its youth would have given indigestion to an ostrich, the ceilings cracked, the floors rough and split, the back stairs, veranda or stoop blocked with refuse and old rags, the hall redolent with the odors of relays of cooking, the front entrance like the leaning tower of Pisa; the boy or girl who is growing into maturity under these surroundings will have uncommon mental and spiritual stamina to resist the tendency to slovenliness of thought and action. Youthful immorality is bred in these congested regions.



WAR WORK HOUSING FOR MEN, INTERIOR OF BARRACKS, SCOVILL MFG. CO.
Courtesy Scovill Mfg. Co.

Added to this when the head of the family, or at least, the male provider, has to pay a rent out of all proportion to the value he receives, the home conversation and atmosphere is bound to be anything but enlivening. We are engaged in many good crusades against the employment of children in occupations hurtful to their growth or morality, but we have not paid much attention to the environment of the children who constitute the larger number of the children of the country nor shown any comprehension of the fact that on the impressionable and vividly receptive mind of the child the place in which he lives has a wonderful effect. If there be inherent a strong character and personal ambition such as is often found in the Jew, Pole and Italian, the contrast between his own and the homes of other children whom he meets at school is bound to make him determined to rise. And he does. But if he does not possess that trait he is bound to become more or less injured.

Housing conditions have not been considered as affecting the children, but there is an important relation between them. The development of physique and mind should proceed with some coordination. A stunted and diseased body is rarely the tenement of a great soul, unless the stunting is the result of accident. A fine physical development means naturally a vigor of body that assists the brain, and in the majority of cases, a better quality of mind, although history shows some of the greatest minds were in defective bodies. But the majority has to be considered. Physical, moral, social and mental development should proceed together.

The housing of the child comes to be an important question. Statistics show infant mortality which could have been reduced at least 60% through air, sunlight, sanitation. This is a serious commercial loss to every community, a loss that is increased by remembering that adult lives have been lost and vitality and usefulness impaired by the war. Therefore, in building houses the fact that they should shelter the potential human forces of the state and country, that they should be the health protecting homes for the children of the state, ought to have paramount consideration.

It is true, we need to house adults. That has been the prime thought in all discussions. But we have also to think of the growing children who are to take their places and see provisions are made so that all families, whatever the color of the nationality, should have in the words of the greatest American citizen of this century, "A square deal." Thousands of children in the state of Connecticut are born and live in stuffy, small rooms, minus sufficient light and

sunshine and without proper sanitary conditions. Were it not for the fact that they escape for several hours daily when they are old enough to go to school, to the warmth, light and better conditions of the latter there would be a larger death rate. And in passing, it may be said that schools can be improved also with regard to their health conditions.

Anyone who is interested or who doubts the statement of existing conditions in tenement houses where are born and live or die as circumstances decree, thousands of children, and whence come sometimes the leaders of the nation, has only to walk through the poorer quarters of any city and see people living in houses where a scientific breeder of pigs would not allow a hog to remain. Not simply to meet an exigency, but to comply with an imperative demand should there be inspection, improvement and securing of good conditions in the older houses and the construction of the newer to furnish them.

Many plans of housing have been presented by experts for building of homes for workingmen and their families. Some of them are exceptionally good and some are like other plans proposed by experts and theorists, uncommonly fine on paper and absolutely no good in fact. Some of these plans arrange for houses of four rooms in some cases and five in others saying the restriction of rooms was to prevent the family having lodgers, and to keep the family really a family. There is much truth in that statement and much to commend it, but a four room house having a kitchen, a combination living room and dining room and two bed rooms is not sufficient to accommodate a growing family and simply means the needs of the family will be met by utilizing both kitchen and living-dining room for bedrooms with the use of the unsanitary couch which is quickly converted from a bed to an ornamental article of furniture and whose bedding receives no airing or sunshine.

Five rooms are the least that any family can get along with sanitarily after it comes to be a family of more than two. The recent epidemic where whole families were lying ill without space for isolation, where sick and well slept together and where when nurses were brought in, their first task was to devise some means of preventing the practice, afforded an object lesson which ought not to be forgotten. Another consideration to be held in view is that unless these houses are built for the migratory class of workmen, they will soon cease to be sufficient accommodation, for families cannot be restrained in size even if a building is, and as soon as he is uncomfortable the workingman will move away.

Compressed quarters are an incitement to a change rather than to a steady occupation, and as a matter of business, the employer who is putting up such for permanent use should think of the labor turnover he is thus encouraging. Builders of houses for speculation cannot afford to sponsor such huts. The workingman resents having his limitations as to expenditure for rent advertised and he resents living in such small quarters.

A conclusive demonstration of this was shown in a certain section of the state where a manufacturer, ten or twelve years ago, put up numerous houses of this sort for occupancy by his help. He finally sold them in a job lot before all the doors had fallen off and while the window frames were still left.

The group house has been favored largely and has the advantage of saving space but the group house is open to the objection that only the ends have full circulation of air. The detached house is the best type in every way. It affords a little space about it wherein the inmates can stretch their arms and legs, have a little garden and expand their muscles and gather life and vigor while filling their lungs with good, free, pure air. As far as possible the building of new houses for industrial use or for rent to tenants of any occupation should plan to avoid the tiresome sameness and unhealthy cramping.

Children were never made to be placed in rows like ninepins, and as they constitute the real wealth of the state, they should be permitted a fair chance to expand.

The workingman's family of the \$16.50 a week class, or even lower wage, naturally has to consider the rent in proportion to the amount of the monthly wages it consumes. Therefore, planning for such a family means getting the most possible of social and home atmosphere within four walls for the least amount of money. The kitchen, the bed rooms and the bathroom are first consideration. The kitchen, because in a tenement or house for this money-grade worker, cooking, working, washing, sewing and mending are all done by the mother in this room. Where the mother stays, the entire family hover about. It is the sitting room and often the reception room. This, however, should be guarded against. The man may be willing to smoke his pipe with his friend while his wife entertains the other man's wife in the parlor, but nine workingmen out of ten are as keen as their wives for the dignity and consequence attained by having a "best room." They are going down the grade when they forget this. The wife may be willing

to use the dining room-parlor combination, but if she had to give up the parlor idea, she would rather eat in the kitchen despite the fact that she knows she can not eat as heartily because "she is filled with the smell of the cooking." Eating in the kitchen is not confined nowadays to the \$16.50 a week class. It is followed by many people who have to do their own work, whatever the size of their income.

The living room or parlor is a desirable adjunct for the young people, who are thus within the home rather than wandering about in dark streets, and are within the reach of their parents, though not with them.

The living room is often an aid as well to social betterment and ambitions.

The bathroom as a name covers more plumbing and landlord sins than the biggest mantle that Charity ever spread. In apartment houses where \$48 and \$50 a month are charged for five rooms it frequently has ventilation only by an air shaft through which floats down or wells up the conversation, criticism and innermost secrets of the other denizens. It has thus served to create feuds compared to which the Montague-Capulet affair was a mere fracas. The shaft also serves to poison the air. In some places there is no pretence of ventilation, the "bathroom" being an afterthought embodied in putting up a partition and cutting down the cubic space of the kitchen or a bed room. Often the kitchen serves as an aisle of approach through which all the family promenades to the goal. It is distinctly bad to have this room connected directly with the kitchen and bed room. Bathrooms should be reached through a separate passage, communicating with the different rooms, thus insuring privacy and sanitation.

Men who hire houses pay the rent. They are entitled to some decent place. Good housing built simply for speculation has proved a good investment wherever tried out, as reported by the City and Suburban Homes company of New York which is giving a 5% dividend annually to its stockholders on the \$6,000,000, it has invested in houses, besides paying good salaries to all its employees and keeping up a high standard of the houses.

When a corporation builds houses that are attractive and home-like and do not advertise the occupation of the owner, these are the ones that are sought. Where the corporation, whether manufactory or real estate, makes it possible for the dwellers to buy these houses on the monthly in-

stallment plan and restricts the neighborhood to a certain grade of improvement and morality, there is the advantage of establishing homes and stability, insuring a livable residential neighborhood and increasing the attractions of the city as a home place for people who may be desirous of new business locations.

WELFARE WORK.

Welfare work and betterment of conditions all over the United States as well as in the state of Connecticut began to take form between 1900 and 1918, when its activity has been much exploited. At the start it was urged by labor unions and sympathetic bodies.

Since it had headway, the Factory Department and the Labor Bureau have been hammering away every year seeing it was kept up and extended. Its first showing was made in employers associations, either death or sick benefit, or both, as exemplified in such union work as the Brotherhood of Trainmen and Locomotive Engineers associations and other railway organizations, carpenters' unions, etc., then the forming of benefit associations in factories and business places either wholly of employees or with employer and employee working together. Tuberculosis associations, firms paying for sick employees at sanitariums, pension systems, bonus, reduction of working hours, increase of pay, group insurance, compensation law, employment of nurses and doctors, rest, lunch and reading rooms, athletic associations, picnics, club rooms, etc., are all forms of welfare work.

Welfare work in all countries has received a great impetus since the beginning of the war as it became plain that plant efficiency and production were largely increased by the comfort and content of the worker. In some countries where whole families were engaged in gainful occupation, where people of leisure were unable to procure domestics and were too helpless to do the work themselves, or where it was thought economy of food, fuel and time might be achieved there was starting of community kitchens.

Like the majority of these schemes, it was practically made in Germany and put into practice in Sweden, Norway and Denmark in 1916-1917, and in England in 1917, where communal kitchens were held with considerable success, there being about 500 in operation by the middle of 1918. One element of their popularity in England and Germany is that in pre-war times, even the poorer classes, the vast numbers herding in lodgings, and the medium middle class were in the habit of patronizing pastry shops and having

dinners brought into their abiding places, excellently cooked and at reasonable price.

For people who were tired or had not the means of cooking or who did not care to buy a variety of articles, it was a good plan. Where the government paid part of the support of the communal kitchens high grade chefs and good material were the rule. In the war time, to the poor, the busy munition workers, the middle class and the rich who wanted to save trouble, the communal kitchen afforded a solution of the feeding problem reasonably satisfactory.

That this, like other old world customs, would ever have become popular except in the sections of populous cities already familiar with the soup kitchen idea is a question. There is something about the communal feeding plan which savors of disfavor in the mind of the independent American citizen. In the first place he is essentially a believer in home cooking, and second, the idea implies a vague public philanthropy and he is too spirited to stand in line and sit around a board to receive his dinner in a basket, forwarded to him, as it suggests the method used in feeding animals in a zoo, and outrages his sense of personal sovereignty. It may do in Germany and other places where they do not care as long as they receive the food.

Every individual plant of any magnitude has dining rooms for men and women, and often separate ones for the foremen and the clerks. These rooms have tables and many of them are fitted up with conveniences for reading. Meals are served at cost, excellently cooked by men or women, the majority of whom are hired by the company, and a few of whom have paid for the privilege of catering. The employees have the choice of several courses, there is an abundance of food, and where there are plants which do not serve the food they have coffee, cocoa and milk for their workers. These are the small places where the greater part of the men and women live close by. After eating, the men sit around the tables playing cards, reading papers, smoking or talking. These men would not be patrons of a community kitchen for several reasons. When the measure was described as a war expedient affording relief and saving time, it impressed the investigator as having desirable features, and being worth while ascertaining the opinion of some of the people in the production centers who were the ones who might reasonably be supposed to profit by its existence.

The first one interviewed was a Polish woman of 51, married, husband living and working, mother of two sons

working in New Haven, one son in the army, four daughters, one of whom is an experienced stenographer receiving \$80 a month; one a teacher of physical culture in California, and the older two who have not been able to have any educational advantages and who married young, have husbands and children and were working in the factories since the outbreak of the war. Of the two sons at home, one was a molder averaging \$45 a week; the other a machinist, not an expert, making with bonus and overtime an average of \$38 a week. Both were married and lived in flats for which they paid \$35 a month, furnishing their own light. One had two boys, neither of whom was at work like his father; and the other had three girls who were to be "brought up fine." The point on which all were unanimous was that education was the greatest good.

This family may be readily taken as a representative type of the decent, ambitious worker. The mother was making cartridges and stopped reflectively as the question: "I can't say I'd want it. No". With decision, "I would not. I bring my lunch and get warm coffee or cocoa here, but if I did not, I would not like to go there if we had one". "I wonder if you would mind telling me why you would not like it?" "Why not is hard to say at once, but I know at once what I do not like. I would not like to go where there are many people waiting to get food. I would not like to go unless I was neat and was satisfied with myself. I would not like to have anybody tell me what I must eat and to have it planned for me. I think today while I am working what I will have for my husband tomorrow. I will plan so that we have a nice, warm breakfast, a good lunch, and at night a fine dinner. There will always be something to eat if we want it, and there will be something for my friends and children, and my grandchildren if they want it. If I have a weakness in my stomach, I can take a bite of food maybe. I think we have all been not at all stuffed with food this year."

"But you could get your noonday lunch—"

"I cook and bring it here and it does not cost me as it is part of what I have for my breakfast and what I am going to have for my dinner.. Besides when I was a little girl a bad time fell on my town. We had to go and have soup and bread given to all in our town. We felt much ashamed. I would not like to go anywhere to have food given to me."

Another woman who had been listening interrupted abruptly "I like to have time when I am tired, but it does not



OUTING OF GIRLS' CLUB, SCOVILL MFG. CO.

Courtesy Scovill Mfg. Co.



A WAR TIME LIBERTY CHORUS OF WOMEN FACTORY EMPLOYEES.

hurt me to cook. I want what I like to eat. I have been too long eating what someone else thinks I should like to eat."

A young married woman had a different reason. "I like my husband, he is a good man, he makes good money, he gives it all to me. I like to get what he likes and to cook it for him and to see him and my children laugh because they are happy for they are eating good food with each other. Besides if my children are hungry I have something to make them happy."

Another, a married woman said, "Children eat and then they stop. Pretty soon they want to eat some more. What then?"

"Suppose I went to one of those", said a bright faced inspector in Bridgeport, "I would not go unless I changed my shoes and combed my hair and freshened up. And I wouldn't like it unless all my own bunch were with me. Not for me."

"I don't have to have anything of that. I have a decent home and wife." said a man shortly.

"I guess it would be all right for anyone that liked it." said a young unmarried man politely, "but it wouldn't touch the spot with me."

"Oh, boy, not for me", said a man in the biggest concern in Shelton, "When we have our eats, we sit around and play cards and have a good time."

"I like kiddos around me, and the smell of cooking", said a man of 35.

Of 50 young women rooming and boarding 15 said they would go once anyway. The others wouldn't think of it.

One of the best methods of conserving and protecting the health of women workers is the welfare supervisor. It is not only necessary to look after the health of the women workers but also of that of the men workers. Hitherto it has been held that only a certain class of workers required such aid but where there has been a general supervisor intrusted with the care of all, there has been a gratifying improvement and lessening of sickness and labor turnover. Welfare workers were factors in large Connecticut concerns six years ago. In 1914 the Winchester Repeating Arms Co. of New Haven had an admirable system fully developed under Mr. L. O. Pethick, who was assisted by a corps of women workers who took care of various branches, both of indoors and shop work and outside recreation and looking after the housing conditions. The Sargent Company of New Haven, the Scovill Mfg. Co. of Waterbury, the Remington Arms of Bridgeport, the Hartford Rubber Works

through the nurse, the Underwood Typewriter Co., the Wiley-Sweet Co. of Hartford, are taken as examples of what has been done by many other plants in this work and which has resulted in 100% benefit.

Six factories in the state in 1917 had a force of registered physicians employed exclusively by them. A number had hospitals whose fittings were not surpassed, and some not equaled by those of model public hospitals. One hospital has three physicians, two orderlies and three registered nurses with a clerical force doing work in connection with the hospital records. Sixty factories in the state employ nurses, and there is no concern even with less than three employees which the factory inspectors have not seen to it possessed and used emergency kits. Rest rooms, lunch rooms, libraries are coming to be more general. When a regular hospital is not warranted by the size of the plant, a room is fitted up with a couch, hospital appliances and the means of taking care of the sick or wounded until a physician comes. Added to their other equipment for the care of their workers, five firms had a bathroom with appliances strictly up to date for their use. These firms are situated in Bridgeport, Norwalk, Shelton, South Manchester and Stafford Springs.

Even before the United States went into the war, the welfare work that was being done in Great Britain, France, Germany and England engaged much attention here. The British Minister of Munitions' pamphlet on the details and systematic work being done for the men and women in the war plants was naturally studied more than the publications of other nations, French information on the subject being scant as the French government's policy was to do the work with as little publicity as possible. About the first step in England was the appointment of women welfare supervisors of whose duties, requirements and relative position to other employees and the management an exhaustive detail was published, completely covering their operations until 1917.

At the National Conference of Employment Managers held in Rochester, N. Y. in May, 1918, Dr. Kristine Mann of the Women's Division, United States Ordnance, outlined a plan for women supervisors which so exactly carried out the ideas put into practice in England that her summary may be quoted to give an epitome of the latter:

"The woman supervisor should be able to advise managers in rest rooms or canteens of the physical condition of individual girls not as respects disease but as to probable

individual power and efficiency; should be able by keeping closely in touch with the worker to observe individual signs of fatigue and to suggest conserving power by maintaining good posture. She should be able to advise the normal girl on diet, exercise, recreation, supplementing the work of the doctor, she should be in close touch with the employment manager advising him in the placing of girls according to their physical capability. On the other hand, she must know something of factory problems from the employer in order that closer co-operation may be affected."

Somewhat nearer to Rochester than Great Britain these suggested reforms, as far as their practical part is concerned, were in full operation in many war plants in Connecticut, and as this state furnished more than half of the munitions and other materials of war, some of its demonstrated methods might well have been described for commendation or criticism. It is only fair to assume that the result of experienced work is as good a criterion as the suggestions of the mental factories who guaranteed to turn out employment agents and welfare workers at the rate of hundreds after a course of six weeks or six months, assuring the employers that these graduates would be fully capable of taking an intimate and responsible position in manufactories which it had taken years of infinite care and business experience to bring to success.

In Bridgeport, New Haven, Waterbury, Hartford, South Manchester, New London, South Norwalk, and in lesser degree in other industrial sections there has been development of welfare work for both men and women for several years. In 1915, the Winchester Repeating Arms of New Haven, the Remington Arms of Bridgeport, the Cheney Bros. of South Manchester, the Brainerd & Armstrong Co. of New London, the Scovill Mfg. Co. of Waterbury, had been for some time seriously concerned in the comfort and health of their workers. The Underwood Company in Hartford was already in the work. Other concerns of more modest dimensions all over the state had many of its features.

As said in a previous report, Connecticut has an admirable record in caring for its workers.

War plants are naturally objects of more interest from the social welfare view, as they were the ones which were the most crowded and the most likely to relax welfare work during the great demand for production. In Bridgeport a most efficient worker, Miss Williams, looked after the Remington Arms employees. The latest visit of the inves-

tigator to the plant in the end of March, 1918, showed admirable results from her careful supervision. She personally followed the history, life needs and housing of every girl under her care, and she also exercised a moral supervision over the conduct of the men.

In New Haven, two firms may be taken as a type of the work that was done, one because it did not have as extensive a system, and the other because it may be given as an example of the broadest and most minute attention to welfare work.

The first, The Sargent Co., had its work under the direction of Mrs. Soby, who may be cited as an example of the practical matron who directs welfare work. She looks after the moral and physical welfare of the men and women both, seeing they are sent to the doctor as soon as in her judgment there is need of a physician's care and sees that cleanliness prevails and exercises a strict outlook over all sanitary conditions. She follows the women and girls into their outer life as far as in her judgment the factory has a right to do, and personally she has established so close a sympathy with the workers that they voluntarily come to her and confide in her all troubles, grievances, and such suggestions as they feel would add to their betterment. Outside of the shops she has organized many of these girls into clubs, one of which did much good work during the war. The Red Cross classes of the Sargent Company met Tuesday and Thursday noon, devoting an hour to making bandages, knitting and all the other work that helped the Red Cross in furnishing aid to the soldiers. The Sargent Co. undertook much sanitary addition and welfare improvement during the year 1918.

The Winchester Repeating Arms Co. welfare work has been systematized and conducted on a large scale, so that it can be regarded as the model plant for war work concerns. There is a welfare supervisor, Mr. L. O. Pethick, who has a corps of competent assistants. The state of experimental theory was long passed in this plant. The chief of the Woman's Division of the works, Miss Isbell, is assisted by a number of capable women whom the general supervisor has assigned to looking after different parts of the scheme, such as recreation, gymnastics, basketry, and many forms of social work. There is a large class room where instruction is given to foreigners in English, general education and technical knowledge. These pupils are paid while being taught. At one time the record of the week showed an enrollment of 611 in 36 classes, 514 men and 97 women. The

hospital work is excellent. There are rest and recreation rooms with piano, victrola, steamer chairs and books. In the dining room appetizing and carefully prepared nutritive lunches are served at less than cost. The morale is admirably guarded.

In Waterbury, the Scovill Mfg. Company has so demonstrated the advantage of care for its employees that saying more about its work is like piling Pelion on Ossa. Apart from that, however, it has a right to mention as showing the worth of a well organized foremen's club. This club issues a bulletin monthly which is a valuable aid to its own and to other concerns. It is edited and filled by men who are employed in the firm, and it has a suggestion column that contains practical hints for improvement in the plant. Those ideas can be used by other men just as well as by the Scovill Mfg. Company management. The seasoned intelligence and wisdom of years of experience are here shoulder to shoulder with the timidity and experience of the youngster just given authority. The managers and owners have the privilege of membership but are not endowed with, nor do they assume, any more authority than any other members. The matters brought before the club are freely debated and the verdict depends upon their worth, not on their source. As one of the managers said: "If I have what I think is an idea, I take it in the front door, and if it comes out the back door just as it went in or clothed with thought and suggestion, I know it is an idea, but if it dies naturally inside the door, I know I was only flattering myself." The foremen's association is a benefit one, and of course there is a general benefit association. There is a fine club room for girls and recreation is well provided.

One of the practical deeds of the company was the purchase of a large number of cattle in the spring of 1917 and the planting of acres of corn to feed them during the winter of 1917-1918. The result was most advantageous and justified the undertaking. F. W. Ineson, superintendent of the Yard-Maintenance, reported on November 4th, 1918: "Of 67 steer, 21 have been fattened, 2 have been butchered for use in our cafeteria and 5 more will be butchered this week. These steer when dressed weighed approximately 600 pounds each. We have just purchased 10 nine week old pigs to take care of the garbage collected from cafeterias and as the amount of this material increases, we will put in additional pigs. This year we raised three acres of millet, 317 bushels of rye, 2,000 ears of sweet corn and 650 bushels of potatoes. At the Wolcott Fair this year we had an exhibition

of our produce and received first prize on millet, green corn and fat cattle, and second prize on potatoes." All this tended to insure for the workers guaranteed, good food in the dining rooms. Perhaps that is why the countenances of the men riding in the interworks jitney, which is one of the methods employed to quickly convey them through the grounds, wear such a happy and beaming expression. It is to be feared they are not returning from a meal composed of a half a pound of spinach, a half pound of cabbage, a quarter of a pound of carrots, a half pound of grated turnip and a handful of cranberries which was announced by a food expert on November 16th, 1918 in the "New York Mail's" column of comment to be ingredients sufficient for the proper nourishment of a man in pursuit of life, liberty and happiness.

The Underwood Typewriter Co. of Hartford has a welfare system under the care of Mr. Hitchcock, who was formerly with the Winchester Repeating Arms Co. This embraces not only looking after the health and morale of the entire establishment, but also educating those of foreign birth.

The Hartford Rubber Works has instituted a fine system which is being well worked out by Miss Phelps, the head nurse, who looks after that as well as the purely nursing department.

The Wiley-Sweet Co. which had much war work to do put in a welfare woman and made a rest room and other improvements.

The Colt Patent Fire Arms Mfg. Co. deserves special mention because of the manner in which Mrs. Burgess, its woman superintendent, brought discipline, harmony and efficiency out of a chaotic condition. Confronted suddenly with enormous war orders this firm raked in help from all sides, making a polyglot combination affording a peculiarly hard problem for solution. Mrs. Burgess' first step was to secure absolute cleanliness, both sanitary and personal, and also to have regard for moral conditions. A woman of over seven years' experience in munition work in Canada, she had definite ideas of what to do and her first act was installation of women janitors, paying them \$15 a week. The result was gratifying. Conditions which under the work of men would have been virtually impossible of change were made right and a general feeling of satisfaction resulted. Girls and women workers were given to understand they could come to her with complaints and be sure they would be protected and helped. In addition she daily went over the works and saw that the safety conditions were good and cautioned the women and men workers not to at-

tempt working on defective machines but to report to the proper authorities.

The Brainerd & Armstrong Co. of New London has had a woman employment manager for years, Miss Wright, and has found her work exceedingly satisfactory. The Standard Brass & Copper Co. of the same city did not begin to employ women on its work until early in the fall of 1918, and when it did had a combined rest and emergency room and a women welfare worker. What was of much value to the women was the action of the manager in setting an equitable rate of pay for their work.

The Cheney Silk Mills of South Manchester, the largest silk manufacturing concern in the world, has been pioneer in welfare and housing work for years, the war finding this factory in no need of improvement in this respect. It has not only looked after the comfort of help but also after its education and physical culture and the town owes to it a system of development of body and mind which makes it unique among the towns of Connecticut.

There are several hundred other concerns which have been steadily working out plans and have provided well for their help. In every concern the benefit associations are of much worth. They contribute ideas and give practical aid and comfort to those of their members who need such. Many factories have taken special care of their tubercular workers and several besides their regular contributions assume the entire expense of such of their employees as are being treated. Many have added club rooms, dining rooms for men and women, rest and emergency rooms, billiard rooms, reading rooms, libraries, and some, swimming pools. In the factories having dining rooms and lunch rooms, food is served at cost when the whole meal is served, and tea and coffee, cocoa and milk are given at cost even when the workers bring their own solid food.

All this work is a good investment, returning more than 50% dividend in decrease of sickness, sullenness, suspicion and inebriety. A man who is fed with wholesome food, housed comfortably, given the opportunity to converse with other men, the chance to have his grievances heard, the full sway as to whether he belongs to a union or remains out, has proof that his employer takes a personal interest in his well being, is a man whom anarchy and drunkenness cannot reach save in rare exceptions.

The last years of the war were productive of a wonderful increase in the bonus system. Bonuses were lavishly be-

stowed for either weekly, monthly or tri-monthly periods. The weekly bonus was the most favored by the employees. In nearly every case the other sort was cause of some complication or difficulty. One or two firms refused to pay them unless the provisions were literally lived up to, claiming the fact that the bonus was clearly explained, should have been sufficient to guide the employee to abide by its terms. The claim was also made that a bonus was not part of the wages but a decision by a judge in New York state put a different interpretation on the matter. One large firm in particular in Hartford which put a rigid construction on its bonus system as a voluntary offering had a great deal of trouble and interruption of war work on that account. The method which has proved most satisfactory in the opinion of the employer and employee is the method of giving the latter a share in profits, which has been in operation for some time with much satisfaction in Hartford.

The cessation of war means the end of all the extra welfare work made necessary by the employment in such large numbers of women who were to work not only in the day but in the night. But it should not mean the giving up of the usual regard for health and welfare, and it is hardly likely that it will. It was imperative that the extra thousands who were demanded by the war exigencies should have been let go when that exigency ceased to exist. Manufacturers dependent on the government contract for work for their employees had no alternative but to reduce forces when the work was reduced. But in many cases welfare workers can still be retained if some other work is added to their duties. The choice of a welfare worker is a serious thing. A factory made up of so many different types of character is no place for the theorist or faddist. A large leaven of common sense is the first ingredient of a man or woman who expects to succeed in this line. Above all there should be no disposition to interfere with the medical part of the work where there is nurse and physician in attendance. The welfare and medical should coordinate. Subordination of one to the other creates a bad feeling which is quickly discovered and tends to demoralize the entire plant. Several cases of this were discovered in the summer of 1918 where welfare workers fresh from the schools where they had been for six months, or perhaps even less, acquiring knowledge, actually sought to impress their importance and directions on nurses who had been doing exceedingly good work for years.

There has sprung up during the war period an undue desire for "heads," "chiefs," "directors," "executives," this, that and the other and a rather laughable tendency to assistant," etc. It is the way the work is done that confers value on the workers rather than the reverse. The more valuable the worker the less time he spends in contemplating his title.

Perhaps it would be well to continue to use "welfare worker" or "matron" or "superintendent." There is too much supervision and not enough looking into and after.

WOMEN IN UNNECESSARY AND UNDESIRABLE WORK.

Whatever reasonable excuse of patriotism and need existed for women in night work in the period between 1914 and 1919, there is none to-day when the return of thousands from service and the release of other thousands from extraordinary war work puts into the field of day labor ample force to answer all its demands.

Employment of women at night gained gradual favor from 1914 to the end of 1917, and the months of 1918 comprised between January and November, saw its greatest growth with the contemplation of making it a still more important factor. Plans were underway for a large increase of this sort of labor and the Department of Labor and Factory Inspection received many inquiries from manufacturers asking for rulings on the matter. These inquiries were made under the impression that the war would continue for at least two more years and men would be drawn from industry in such large numbers as to make the utilization of women's labor at night an absolute need. Yet, even then, there was perception of the grave danger underlying such employment and certain to be the result. France, in the hour of her most extreme need of production, had become so assured of the evils of night work for women that it took measures to curtail it with the intent of speedy abolishment.

In America, the loss of health, the danger of mental and moral degeneracy for coming generations have been in the minds of thinking people for several years. The immediate immorality which has been the first thought in the minds of some did not so greatly disturb those actually familiar with the situation as they knew it was grossly exaggerated, the existence of one or two cases being cited as proof of general moral indifference and turpitude. Moral lapses occur in all communities or collections of people, even where they are supposed to be bomb proof against such derelictions. The factories are no worse, and in some cases are far better. The centers of munition work naturally drew in all grades and it is not surprising that some were objectionable. Flagrant immorality was not tolerated in any concern, and on complaint to any of the state employees, whose business it is to look after such matters, evidences of wrongdoing

were carefully investigated and brought to the attention of the employers who at once took summary action. This statement does not bear on night work alone. It is equally applicable to day work.

The demand for workers was so great that grades which under other circumstances would not have been considered because of lack of training, were admitted during the months of 1918. These were used under the direction of skilled workers or were easily taught to do the less important details. As far as possible in night work the older and more experienced employees were assigned.

Contrary to general belief men and women welcomed night work and were eager for it, asking for transfer from day to night shifts, and making complaints when others were given the change. A considerable number of men and women had told the investigator that discrimination was used in "favoring" certain others by giving them night work. In truth, during the period before the armistice instead of wanting shorter hours, women workers were many of them highly indignant at any attempt to restrict their labor, not so much for patriotism, frankly making no pretence of this, but stating they wanted the increased wage. The answers which these workers, both day and night, make to what they quickly distinguished as "all right" and "fool" questions show a markable variance. Many, both men and women, were not only willing to work nights but to do overtime both day and night and on Sundays and holidays. It is a matter of record that United States officers acting as government inspectors in many plants urged the owners to go ahead, *nolens volens* and work overtime. Manufacturers deluged the Department of Labor with inquiries on the matter and even sought consent at Washington. The attitude of the State Labor Bureau was that it was most difficult to put up bars once let down, and laws for the protection of workers should be enforced even when some of them were willing to break them. Especially where the eight hour law was standard in government work were the workers keen to obtain night employment. Work then began at six in the evening and ended at six in the morning, and in case of men sometimes not until eight in the morning. Many people think that there is restriction of the hours of labor of men to 55. There is not. Only where a factory or shop establishes a uniform schedule it has to adjust its labor to furnish employment to all branches during that schedule, and having one for one set of workers and another for a second would result in embarrassmen. That is one reason why there was

objection to employing child labor during the brief period of the protection of this labor under the eight hour a day limit.

Having three shifts of workers for an eight or six hour limit has not been followed in night work save in a few places. In some, two shifts were employed, but in the majority the hours were six to six or from seven to seven. Night work was desired because the pay was greater, and with overtime, which is time and a half, or in some cases double time, the workers made from \$10 to \$15 a week more than doing corresponding work in the daytime.

Night work of a certain sort will probably continue for some time, despite any endeavor to obtain its abolishment. This is the sort that is employed in public utilities such as telephone companies whose night force has always been largely women. That these concerns now either temporarily or permanently—the latter doubtful—under United States jurisdiction notwithstanding the assertions of United States officials at Washington that night work for women is undesirable, will remain exactly as they have been on the question of employment of women at night, can be taken for fact. We can add to them the telegraph and railroad offices for some amount of night work for women, and possibly the postal service.

Students of fatigue and efficiency, and the nervous, physical and other disorders which night work may entail or develop from incipency have furnished ample information on the subject and there is no need of taking up space to give it minutely. It has been shown that night workers have not the resistance to disease, have not the same power and excellence of work production as day workers, and continuous labor of this sort steadily undermines the nervous system. The night workers, did not labor every night in the week. They generally started work Monday evening; in exceptional cases, only, on Tuesday evening, and gave it up on Friday night, in some occupations; on Saturday noon in others, thus having all day or half day Saturday, Sunday and Monday to recuperate. Maybe the men so employed it. The married women took it to clean house, do cooking and sewing and the hundred and one other little things that make up a housewife's business. If they had any leisure time they went to the movies or elsewhere. It never occurred to them to spend as much time in sleep as they would if they were working days. All night workers seem to consider that they should devote some of the day intervening between the periods of employment to keeping awake and doing.

The effect of the absence from the home of mothers and wives is deplorable. Were it long continued and were it to be allowed to be the custom it would be the destruction of such homes, the drifting into temptation of thousands of children and a serious menace to the state. Night work is not now a necessity. Its tolerance in public utilities is a concession to the fact that it is necessary to retain old and experienced employees and would also be a direct and irremediable hardship to dismiss them. But in industrial work there is too great an abundance of labor to cut its chances of employment by having night work for either men or women. Labor for the present and the coming year should have all the opportunity for employment that can be afforded. And that opportunity should be in the daytime.

Women have been employed in work which was just as deserving of condemnation as night work but which many of them preferred. A full list of these occupations is given in the report of the Factory Inspection branch of this department. This work is now no longer necessary for women on the plea that men could not be obtained to perform it, and all women who are holding the positions filled by men formerly, if these be men who vacated them to do service for the country, should not be retained if it keeps these men idle. Office work of all kinds has been done by women in the place of men since the entrance of the United States into the war. Auto business, bank, factory, insurance, laundry, shop, store, telegraph, railroad ticket offices and freight stations, information, care taking, elevator operation in business houses and office buildings, farm work, tobacco where over 1500 women and girls labored the past year, these are not all the occupations in which they figured. These women on the average received about 83% of what the men whom they succeeded were receiving in pay and had practically the same hours. In banks and insurance these were eight on the average. In the other work eight and longer. The laundries paid the highest wages to women taking the places of men. Connecticut had a few women acting as auto drivers and state policewomen in the way of camp patrols but it was not edified by the sight of women trolley car conductors and motormen, telephone linemen, traffic policemen and other avocations. It did have them as gate-tenders, about a dozen of whom flourished in the state.

None of these latter functions are desirable for women. The women police who patrolled the camp vicinities are naturally no longer to be considered, but there is still question

as to whether or not women should be a factor in railroad work.

From a study of their success in this and their attitude as affecting the employment of men, the investigator emphatically says no. A long, unsatisfactory correspondence was held in the spring and summer of 1918 with the United States Railroad Department at Washington, the United States Labor Department, and about half a dozen divisions of the latter to which the letters from the State Industrial Investigator were shunted concerning the long hours and lack of sanitary conditions affecting these employees of the Federal Government who were working 11 and 14 hours a day replacing old men, crippled men and men whose misfortunes had come from serving the railway. Women in railroad work have no place. Not that they cannot perform some part of it as well as men, but because it is a none too desirable occupation for men and because the presence of every woman worker in this line means the displacement of a man who has a family to maintain. It would inevitably lead to grave results, economically considered, in lowering the rate of wages of the men. A letter from one of the most important branches of the Federal Department of this Department, the summer of 1918 requested help in getting men and women for certain work and specified the wages of the women which were to be exactly half that of the men. If women are going to do men's work, they should receive precisely the same wages. There never existed an excuse for women in the operations of a railroad in this state, such as considered. The men whom they replaced were not men who could be used in war service. They were aged and crippled and the weekly wage they received kept them from being objects of charity. That young, buxom women capable of working at any business which required manual strength should put these men out of honorably earning their living was near a crime.

There is and will be abundance of work for women. Instead of having a long and enduring slump there is to be activity in clothing and other trades in getting ready for the needs of our export trade, in taking up again the threads we have dropped.

With reference to farm work: Women and girls have labored in tobacco fields and warehouses during the season for years. Women as planters, ploughing, furrowing, weeding, doing all the heavy work of the farm, even if aided by machinery, might be endured during the war when women showed a splendid disregard of their comfort and

convenience. It has existed to some extent in parts of the South and West, but it is not exactly a desirable or elevating sight in times of peace when abundance of labor to do the rough work on farms can be obtained. The majority of the women so working were Poles and Italians except the volunteer workers who were college and high school girls and women of leisure. The volunteer class can obtain enough work about its own homes to contribute largely to the family cuisine. But the employment of women as paid farm laborers is a little unnecessary and too much like certain habits of the Old World. Americans do not have to emulate. In time of necessity our women will do anything, but this sort of labor is not absolutely necessary at all. And there will be absolutely no justification for the economic crime of displacing men and receiving work through accepting a two-third or a one-half rate of pay.

PROPER SCOPE OF AMERICANIZATION.

Americanization did not begin with the outbreak of the late war, nor were educational activities in the cities of the state blind to its needs in the previous years. It began when the first immigrant, with straining eyes and steps awkward from the long confinement of the steerage came down the gang plank from oppression and starvation into the promised land of freedom and plenty. From all lands, all climes, they have been steadily pouring into Connecticut; grandparents bent beneath heavy loads, fathers, mothers, children, dumb as animals, hearts filled with joy, forgetting the fatigues of the journey, buoyed up by the mysterious elixir of sense of liberty. Some of these newcomers were bound to be leaders and the nation so generously receiving them was the debtor instead of the creditor; others were to be followers ever. All were to pass through the crucible of assimilation into an Americanism none the less vigorous and effective because of the alloy. The first requisite toward the making and continuing of an American citizen is to be firmly convinced that this government developed and holds stability and confidence because the people believe it is a government of the people, by the people, and for the people. Every foreigner should have it properly ground into his intelligence that by service, conduct and residence for a stated time he becomes as much a part of it as the man whose people were here a hundred years ago. Priority does not count. Intelligence, patriotic service and interest do. If a man comes to the United States simply because he can earn a better living than in Europe, if his interest in this country be merely a pecuniary one, he is not making any return for the protection, liberty and wage earning opportunity he receives. There are many such foreigners in the state of Connecticut, there are exactly 57 varieties of the various stirpes and added to this a number whom the manufacturers in their reports classed as miscellaneous. The greater part of these people realize the value of the exchange they have made. They can come and go wherever they please; they can enter and leave their homes whenever they desire with no dread of the intrusion of officialdom; their home is a castle defended by the laws of the state; they can earn as much in a week as they could in six months on the other side and with far less labor; no official can push open the door and

search their homes unless he has a warrant, and club them into insensibility if they resist; they do not have to slink out of the way of petty officials representing an elaborate system of autocracy or bureaucracy.

Connecticut has a large foreign born element. In making this statement it must be distinctly emphasized that a definition is necessary as to what constitutes an element to be held foreign. Save for the five years limit set for naturalization, there is no rigid definition as to what legally differentiates a foreign born citizen from a native born one. Socially, his habits and associations may distinguish him. We shall have to rid ourselves of the tenacious old fashioned idea that when a man comes from Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, Holland, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Russia, Sweden, Switzerland, etc., he is a foreigner for all time whether he declares his intention to become a citizen the first day he lands, and does become one as soon as the law permits, or whether he remains aloof and takes no interest in the state. Even in the first case, by some inexplicable process of reasoning he has been held a foreigner no matter what service he renders, and his children and his children's children are also foreigners. On the other hand, certain other races are held as Americans whether they have really taken out papers and enriched Uncle Sam by \$5 or not. These have the advantage of speaking the same tongue as those who have preceded them by one or more generations. A great measure in making bona fide American citizens out of foreigners is to hold them foreigners until they become American citizens. When that becomes a fact, make them American citizens in treatment and drop all slurring titles and call them what they are—American citizens.

The foreigner who came to Connecticut to make it his permanent home has been a good addition to the state. Were it not for his labor the bridges, roads and public improvements would still be lagging. After a time he becomes aware of his own worth to the state and when he has taken out his first papers and owns property, which he speedily does, he is jealous of his dignity and his property rights. He has never been able to explain clearly to his own understanding why it is that his children who are quicker, more retentive and more eager than other children to acquire education, are set apart in a way from their fellow school children and despite the fact that they are anxious to be Americans and have become American through their father's act, are still classified as foreigners. This sort of thing is too common in schools. If it were not for the

overpowering conviction of the foreign born that he has gained so much by being in the state it might prove serious. Even the children of the men who are not citizens are potential Americans, as they are in the state to take advantage of its school systems, to do part of its industrial and other work and to make it their home.

The element which can be truly called foreign is that, whether it comes from English or non-English speaking lands, which remains in the state and shows no interest in its welfare or desire to participate in its citizenry by taking out papers. For assuredly those who have done the latter cannot be classed as a foreign element as they have already and voluntarily taken the first step toward becoming an ingredient which will ultimately and profitably be merged in making a desirable whole. Besides the men there are large numbers of women who are a potent force as workers and as molders of opinion in their own home and sphere. Very few of these men and women are vicious and undesirable, even of those who came here before the Burnet immigration law, and there is not one of them that is not filled with a great and enduring love for the land of their birth or of their ancestors. This does not in anyway militate against their becoming the finest of citizens any more than because a man loves his mother he is to be regarded as an undesirable husband. However much these people abhor the government from which they have escaped, they have a strong affection for their fatherland. Any endeavor to make them forget would arouse instant and enduring resentment.

But they make the distinction between their past and present home themselves. Where it was possible for many of these people to return to their home lands when the war in Europe broke out, they quickly did so and were fighting in the ranks of their own country, particularly those who were called by military service laws. But many who were not citizens remained here and showed no intention of returning. It has to be kept constantly in mind that they came here to make a home in a free land. That lays the foundation for their Americanism. The splendid loyalty shown by American citizens of foreign birth and those not citizens, their cheerful obedience to the selective draft, and the enlistment of so many who could not be reached by the former, are conclusive proofs that only a perfervid calamity seeker need have any fears as to their present or future attitude.

When the registration was going on in Hartford a young alien who was present with his wife and four children, said

in answer to the questionnaire that he would not claim exemption on the ground of his wife and children but was willing to leave them to fight for the country which was so good to him. His wife exclaimed, "Yes, he go fight. Me, stay home. Me work and take care of children." Another, a Pole with six children, said, "I am willing to go fight. This country give me money to live nice. I could not get that in my own." Against this, one man said, "I fight all right if I have to. When war is over, I go back to my mother and father." Registration revealed there were 58,596 men of foreign birth in the state, between 21 and 31, and there were in the selective draft 27,543, almost 50% of the number. The investigator would hesitate to say that 50% of the foreign born are men of working age. In case of the countries which have been foremost in contributing to immigration, families come into Connecticut from Italy and Poland having in their train four, five and six children of whom at least half are girls.

Austrians, Armenians, Germans, Greeks, Hungarians, Jews, Italians, Lithuanians, Poles, Russians and Russian Jews are the subjects for Americanization work. It would be unjust to class as illiterate all these people because they cannot speak English, any more than if one of us was graduated from an uncommonly good high school and went to Italy and not being able to speak its language was dubbed ignorant.

In those countries in Europe where education is compulsory, the people grade by grade, are given a more solid foundation and are better taught than we. Furthermore in the process of teaching the foreign residents of the state, the advantages of becoming English speaking and obedient to the laws, it would be highly judicious for orators to become familiar with the immigration laws of the United States.

Two strong reasons demand attention to Americanization: First, it will make the alien understand that it is for his own good as much as for the state's that he become an intelligent and interested citizen; second, that it is for his own pecuniary advantage that he understand the work and the directions concerning it, as it will give him greater efficiency, confidence, speed and inevitably result in higher wages, better place and permanency. The factory managers will be practically unanimous in saying that they count as some of their very best workers foreign born men. During the war time period these men were among the most enthusiastic and speedy producers, the first to begin work,

the last to leave it and the break in their labor was noticeably small. There are two or three foreign nationalities who are the best sort of workers, both men and women, naturally taking to machine work, apt and deft and having a small per cent. of accident. For obvious reasons these nationalities cannot be here given. That they would be better off by knowing everything that pertains to their work needs no arguing. It is a great disadvantage to a worker to be dependent on somebody's good will, and an expense to the employer to have a third person's time taken up by interpreting.

Whatever other methods may be employed, the two most effective and direct to reach him is the place where he works and the public school system. The first gains him through presence, appeal of his competitive skill and ambition and desire to make money. The second secures him through his ambition, his affection and his pride; particularly in the shop, if he sees that men from his own country, province or grade of work are attending factory classes or evening school and notices that they have been encouraged or "favored" as he probably puts it in his mind by being set instructing such as he, receiving better jobs and more pay.

The Italian, but more eagerly, the Russian Jew, will at once start on the same road. Other nationalities are slower more difficult to persuade. Where there are factory schools much improvement has been seen in the quality and quantity of the work and less labor turnover just as soon as the worker sees the more he knows the more money he makes. Evening schools in factories will never gain the attendance and success achieved by having day classes run on time paid for by the factory management. The men and women are too much in the factory in the day to be willing to return in the night unless exceptionally keen, and thus if a small number did come, many would be deprived of the chance of the day schooling. A factory evening school would have to have other attractions than the school work. Entertainment would have to be a feature and here would arise the danger of some just paying attention to that form. If speakers were to be introduced and this would be a valuable feature of the work, some one would be sure to remark they were working for some sort of propaganda.

The safest and most speedy result plan is to have the school in the day time conducted by someone who is regularly an employee of the factory. This is the method that is followed in the largest plants where this work has been going on previous to the war. Several of these plants have

resumed educational work and were delighted to find they had good and increasing classes. In smaller, if there is not sufficient occupation for the man who is to take care of the educational and explanatory work about the processes of the plant, he can follow some other form of usefulness for the factory and thus reduce expenses.

The manner in which the schools in the Winchester Repeating Arms, the Pratt & Whitney Co., the Scovill Mfg. Co. have been run embraces getting out the thinking and individuality of the pupils. It is surprising to find that these, some of whom were as responsive and as receptive as stone images at the start, became interested through the simplest form of appeal to the eye and through it to the mind. Blackboard illustrations, picking out simple stories of nature, bringing the individual to the blackboard and using it to illustrate his ideas as often as possible, stereopticon and moving picture entertainments were great helps. Not only were the men and women taught facts about their work and instructed how to speak and write English but they gathered an amount of diversified knowledge that would be hardly credited were it not demonstrated. Women in the factories where they worked and were admitted to classes were not as steady and progressive pupils as the men but they made progress, and were also taught basketry, embroidery, sewing, etc. Pratt & Whitney had classes of young men in drafting and mechanical drawing and the New London Ship & Engine Co. had both young men and young women in such classes, the latter mostly as tracers.

Whatever the outlay in dollars and cents in carrying on educational systems for foreign born in factories, it returns more than 75% in many instances and 100% in others and is about the best sort of an investment for stability, prevention of accidents and increase of production. Circulars, printed slips and literature of that ephemeral nature are costly wastes. The average workman, foreign or native born, and the leisure class have one trait in common, distaste of this form of approach. Striking posters with some object in view attract and in a few cases hold attention for a short time. When used care should be taken that they are literally correct else they only serve to arouse ridicule. In any case it is doubtful if they pay back the money invested. Picture books, pertinent to the line followed and stories of noted people and current events are preferable.

The public school has a wider range than the factory as it can gather pupils from all sides; the evening school from all occupations and trades, thus doing a work both day and

evening through the children who come in the daytime and the older ones in the evening. The foreign born mother and father of mature age are not good subjects for or in great need of Americanization. Their day is passing and it is with the children the work should deal. These people, however, show great interest in and anxiety for their children's education and are intensely proud when they show advance. A case may be cited of an old Italian woman in Wooster Street, New Haven, who went all the bitter winter of 1917-1918 without shoes in order that her grandchildren might go to school. It is also surprising how much of English some of these people master through the sheer force of necessity.

The children who go to the public schools act as missionaries to their families. They take pride in displaying their knowledge and instructing their fathers and mothers. Compelled by law to attend school, their absence is rare and the vigilance of the State Board of Education inspectors has wholesome terrors for them if they try to evade school and work under age. In the school they also mix with the native born children and quickly acquire a knowledge, that if left to themselves would demand much more time. Many of those of older growth are reached by the night school. There should be a definite plan to increase their number through making appeal to the various working centers. The night school offers grammar, academic and manual training as well as courses in office and business requirements. That the chances here are utilized is shown by the names of the pupils who are graduated. One of these in New London offered a teacher in the public schools \$100 if she would fit him for a course in a higher institution. The New York City Board of Education has had for several years night schools whose attendance is nearly all foreign-born. Its curriculum has been especially planned to meet the needs of students who care to go higher than the ordinary course and many of these boys have entered college. There has been carried on in New York City for several years a course of public school lectures in the evening in the different sections of the city to the great advantage of general education.

Since Bridgeport opened the evening trade school on John Street there has been a good attendance, mainly foreign. The first enrollment was 223. Pattern making, electrical work, blue prints, reading, architectural draughting, printing and linotype operation, tool making and sturdy Americanism were taught among other things.

In New York the play school has been tried, particularly with regard to Americanization. The idea was successful. Besides this they are taught useful arts. Children are given nutritious soup, bread, butter and dessert for five cents.

There is a general idea that the poor, foreign born live extravagantly because they do not know how to buy food in the proper proportions to secure the ingredients making for thorough nourishment of body and brain. Perhaps this may have some slight foundation with certain nationalities, but it is certainly a theory with Poles, Jews and Italians. Whether through accident, custom or tradition they are able to make combinations of food that are tasteful, nutritive and well balanced, as well as economical. This the investigator knows from having partaken of them. One of these women will make a meal having all the calories and protein and other things needed out of less money than an American woman would pay for a couple of chops.

These people did not start on food economy after the war began with us or when it was started in Europe. They have been practising it for years. They would have starved if they did not. It would be a great mistake for an investigator or a food expert to attempt an inquiry into the home conditions of the foreign born with the idea that thus economy could be taught. Economy is their middle name. Cleanliness, it is stated with much pleasure, is more often present than absent. Physicians and insurance agents, the latter making weekly visits, will testify as to the spotlessness of the majority of homes, notably among Poles and Italians. Furthermore, the foreigner is sensitively jealous of the sanctity of his home, and it would be hard to persuade him that it should be regarded as a parade ground for philanthropy. He appears to have imbedded in his foreign brain the English idea that his home is his castle. He may be polite at one invasion but he has the question mark after it and the sense of belittlement. The war demonstrated in this and other states that natural conditions have been quietly and effectively working with the plastic younger children to make out of the heterogenous mass a national homogeneity. As there were different nationalities, though in a small proportion, to make the simon-pure American of today, so there are 57 varieties with 40 different types of distinct race and section to go into the American citizen of the future.

Certain fundamental principles of truth, justice and love of liberty belong to all races. There is no insurmountable barrier between the American to be developed and the Amer-

ican whose development has ante-dated his by four or five or six generations. The great harmonizing, solidifying, democratic agent is the system of school education, which brings all classes and races together and does its work on the plan that all are free and equal.

SANITARY CONDITIONS AS TO DISEASE.

The health of factory workers was made a subject of consideration by large firms before 1914, some having had well developed plans successfully copied by other states as early as 1910. In 1907 a systematic betterment for women workers was started and has been progressing ever since. Firms employing men have opened lunch rooms and the factory inspectors have insisted on all employees of even small numbers having emergency kits. In 1917-1918 there was not a factory of any size in the state which had not an emergency room of some sort. Many of these were of the "some sort" class, while others had every modern appliance.

In many factories which have no welfare department and whose employees' numbers do not justify such an addition, if there is a nurse in constant attendance she can do a great deal of good by going through the factory, seeing if the workers are in good working trim and sending those who need attention to her room or to their home. This suggestion has been made to a number of such nurses and acted upon with decided benefit, one nurse saying "there are less on the sick list now, they all seem to know me and many of them come voluntarily for treatment who previously could not be induced to stop work for any reason."

Another thing which is effected by such a daily stroll through the place is more cleanliness. Offenders will be afraid to continue if they are caught and warned, and there will also be less of the cliques and little jealousies that exist in factories if there is someone who helps to straighten out difficulties. It may be objected to by some trained nurses that this means practically combining the functions of a nurse with those of a welfare worker with no increase in pay. Some women even thought it lowered the dignity of a trained nurse. This objection can be dismissed with the comment that a real nurse puts well being of others before her dignity, and through her devotion to her calling has enough of the quality about her not to be worried. The first reason deserves entertainment. An employer who can obtain this sort of interested worker, who will combine both functions of nurse and welfare worker, where it is impossible to obtain the latter, is securing something worth money for which he ought to be willing to pay. The places where this combina-

tion is in effect have paid gratifying returns on the investment.

Where the follow-up system is employed in large and small concerns it has caused more than 60% decrease in illness, and in the case of cuts, bruised fingers, etc., has prevented infection. Wherever there is an emergency room in a concern which has no women employes and does not exceed 25 or 50 men, the foreman is in charge. Some of these men are neat and keep their places in order but a large proportion have the places so dirty that anyone coming for aid has to run considerable risk of infection. And many of them know only three cures for all ills or accidents, Jamaica ginger, peroxide and whiskey or brandy. If a man has a finger cut and it is bandaged, they do not follow him up to see how the cut is healing. Of course in case of serious injury or something beyond their limited knowledge, they call in the physician with whom the company has an agreement. The foremen seldom keep record of the time, number of accidents or general condition of their patients. There is reason for suspicion in view of the singularly small number of reports returned to this office on certain subjects, that the physicians do not devote much time to recording cases.

The method employed by the head nurse of the Hartford Rubber Works is so business-like, direct and simple that it can be outlined here for the benefit of many concerns which have not this simplified system. It has a large, well trained force looking after the welfare of its workers, and had under project the building of a \$75,000 welfare house on the grounds when the United States government caused all building operations not essential to actual war work to be temporarily suspended. This firm has about 2,000 employes whom it will keep all the year and probably increase, and its experience, therefore, in adopting devices which give it an accurate idea of its employees' state of health is a guide.

A set of books on the loose leaf plan is the foundation. The applicants for treatment are listed, the date each one comes, the character of the injury, the number of treatments, the number of times he required treatment, the progress or otherwise of his malady or injury are all noted. At the end of the year, a brief glance gives a complete idea of how each individual stands, and his economic value to the firm. This system when it was computed at the end of a period was found to have reduced the days of illness, exposed shammers and to have cured habitual grumb-

lers, who, if they did not know that each visit was carefully recorded, would have been regular patrons every day for some imaginary ill. There are more of this class among men than women. It is also impossible to discover in a few months whether a man or woman is really in the occupation best fitted to or her. Many are ill and do botchy work simply because it is not the sort of work which appeals to them. If they are given something in which they are interested, the rise in the quality and excellence of their production is marked. It has really astonished many of those under this combined medical treatment and economic observation to find the danger they were in of becoming chronic consumers of medicine. They are also endowed with a confidence in their own health which is a fine business asset. The knowledge that he is injuring his commercial value is a great tonic to any man. In short, this sort of record makes a man understand that he himself is the prime factor in making himself a necessary or a negligible worker. Where there are small emergency rooms or kits it was usual to find, except where the cabinet was purchased fully equipped, the remedies employed were primitive. In some of the places the roll of cotton was filthy on the outside. Jamaica ginger, bromo seltzer, alcohol, peroxide with some whiskey were the principal remedies.

From observation of the reports which some of the men and women kept for the investigator, it was found where the bromo seltzer and Jamaica ginger were mainstays, the consumption was alarming and the investigator after a couple of weeks' study of this phase in the places, decided it was best to forbid the bromo seltzer and restrict the use of Jamaica ginger and whiskey. It was done only after it was found the same patrons came every day or two or three times a week for these remedies, one man actually taking aromatic spirits of ammonia in the same dose with Jamaica ginger. A reasonable time was spent waiting for him to expire but he only became quarrelsome. Another man served by a sympathetic foreman habitually had a dose of Jamaica ginger with whiskey in it because "nothing but that would take away the pain about his heart." The enforcement of the restriction caused considerable grumbling, but as substitutes had been provided for the banished articles, the number of workers, both men and women who suffered with weakness of the stomach decreased surprisingly.

There is no question but that a number of undesirable diseases not reportable under the Occupational Disease Act,

have had victims in every place where numbers of people are employed. There is gross exaggeration respecting the extent of some of these diseases but the records of army doctors show there is ground enough for desiring the exercise of more precautions. There is absolute need of keeping track of the unfortunate people who are afflicted and of safeguarding innocent victims. A record of all cases discovered in factories and other business places should be kept, not necessarily to be published, but in such a way that cases could be treated and the public protected. It can be done without exploitation and it is a duty that it be done. Persons so affected are shy of doctors and nurses in factories. Cases where they were under observation showed they became suspicious, gave up their jobs and disappeared to turn up somewhere else as a peril. In one instance the entire record of a case was torn from the book in which it was kept.

They constitute a serious problem, even though it is not as large as supposed. Some aid might be afforded if the physicians were to go through the factories personally at irregular intervals. They would thus see those who had never come near them. The best method is general adoption of the plan of one great business concern which keeps its force to its satisfaction and comfort by having a physical examination of applicants before they are accepted as workers. This would act as a protection and also be a direct help to any who were found to need attention.

An example is here given to carry its own warning: In the early summer of 1917 a woman who was hopelessly and frightfully diseased and aware of it was employed in a large city in a position that made her a menace to thousands of people during the year. While it was not necessary that she even see them, the nature of her calling was such that articles of imperative need passed from her hands to others, and she ate and drank from dishes used by others. When discovered she was informed by the physician called to attend her that she must at once give up that work. On his next call she was gone. The earth might have swallowed her for all the trace left. It seems almost unbelievable that she could have reached such a state without being reported by some physician, but it is a curious psychological fact that some reputable doctors shrink from making reports of such cases, and others who are concerned do not wish to be known as knowing anything about them. While so many agencies are at work and are being suggested to undertake unnecessary work that only embarrasses workers and em-

ployes, it seems there should be more attention paid to this matter, involving such genuine health menace. Nor should any further agency than the existing State Board of Health with its exceptional good powers be employed. It can outline for physicians in various places a course of action to be pursued. The disease in question should be made compulsorily reportable. A penalty ought to be given for failure to follow such a plan. Occupational diseases are required to be reported to the Department of Labor. A fee sufficient to pay for the time consumed in making the report is provided, but it is only exceptionally conscientious physicians who furnish any details.

Health conditions would be much safer if there was instituted in every factory or place where people are employed the free, flowing water system when washing-up time comes. Abolition of the trough sinks has been urged before.

Another measure would be putting women of mature age, still able to work, as cleaners in every factory, to have full charge of the lavatories and toilets. The dirty, broken toilets and wash basins and towels and drinking facilities are constant dangers. The bubbler water system should also be extended.

YOUNG MOTHERS IN INDUSTRY.

The work of women in every form of industry was a most needed help in 1917-1918. Women as munition workers were proficient long before the United States entered the war. But after that, the demand for production for ourselves met with a noble response from all ages, colors and conditions. Women of all grades mingled harmoniously in the common cause. Believing that there would be greater call for women's work after the first selective draft was filled, knowing that besides the large quota this state was assigned, that hundreds of men had left their positions to do State and Federal office war work, concerted movement was begun to register women in all cities so that when the emergency came, their services could be obtained either voluntarily or through requisition. In 1914-1915, several hundred young married women were working in munition and laundry plants; their presence in the latter being a common occurrence. In the laundry work, this class of workers did not have to labor continuously nor were they employed every day in the week in all cases. Many came in for a few hours daily, three or four days a week in the wet wash laundries. But some were in the regular six-day-a-week concerns but never at any labor requiring special concentration of mind, which would react in fatigue of body, nor were they compelled to remain seven or eight hours in certain positions. In 1915-1916 there were in 130 laundries of the state 1015 married women of whom 454 had non-supporting husbands and the number of married, widowed and divorced women reporting living children was 1196. In the hotels, dining rooms and restaurants there were 1039 married women, of whom 349 had non-supporting husbands. Of married, divorced and widowed women working there were 1488. The number reporting living children was 1067. In the candy, confectionery and drug stores were 164 married, 252 married, divorced and widowed; 232 reporting 212 living children. No account is taken of the married women working at that time in the factories of all kinds, nor of those dressmaking, doing millinery work and in other store occupations. The total number of married women employed in the industries investigated in 1915-1916 was 2218.

The total number of women reported married in the factory industries in 1918 was 19482. This number covers munition, regular factory and other work which is subordinate to the factory work. The increase in the number of women both married, single, widowed and divorced in the factory work of the state in 1917-1918 was less than 9000.

In this increase we do not reckon the small per cent. of the volunteer workers, as in making up reports of uniform workers, this class cannot be considered, nor should it enter into the question save as a transient quality quickly eliminated. Nevertheless, some of these volunteer workers, as the teacher class, remained because of the better wage and less nerve destroying occupation.

Comparison of the figures obtained in the investigation of 1917-1918 with allowance for those who have since the close of the war returned to their usual occupations, allowing for the number who would be classed as regular workers at all times; for those who had withdrawn from work before the war and then returned and now remain; for those in toto who must be ranked as permanent workers, the percentage of the entire workers in the factories who are married women is 5.48%; of this number, less than one-third of 1% are young married women with children ranging from four or five months to four to ten years. At one time, in the height of the work, there were employed in the war and other allied plants about 600 young women from 18 to 30 who reported themselves as married. In 1914-1915 there were several hundred young married women in the munition plants then visited but not studied in detail. These women were 17% foreigners who spoke English more or less well; between 2 and 3% who did not speak it at all; 35% who knew enough English to carry on a limited conversation; 20% who had been in the public schools as far as through the grammar grade; 22% good Americans, and the remaining illiterate no matter what their nationality.

This was before we entered the fight. Not one of these women worked for any motive except the desire to earn money. Since we have been in the war, the number of young, married women working who were personally interviewed and questioned about their motives in working made no pretence of any lofty patriotism. They were working purely and simply for money, and they did not care whether they displaced men with families to support if they themselves could only make money. Their attitude was openly and sordidly disgusting in this respect. Few of them were working for necessity either. While some had husbands

who were not giving them all their money, the non-supporting husband was the possession of the older married women. The young, married women with children, on the whole, had nothing to complain of as to treatment or support. In nearly every case their husbands were making good wages. Always to be excepted is the small class of volunteer workers which embraced some young, married women. Of these no statistics were asked or obtained through any source, as they could not be considered a permanent labor factor.

The "homes" some women left to care for themselves were shocking. They were dirty, dark, unsanitary, floors unswept, dishes unwashed, clothing hanging over chairs and reeking with the smell of garments long worn and seldom washed; curtains, stiff with dirt and so rotten from lack of washing that they crumbled when touched, obscured such light as the filthy windows allowed to enter. Here is one sample. The place was reached by a narrow stairway whose treads were well worn. The few feet of entrance space was occupied by two old women whose faces were literally brown parchment, seamed with wrinkles. Both of them were an offense to the nostrils. Each of them was guardian of children whose mothers were working. One baby of fourteen months squirmed on the lap of its grandmother. Asa-fetida was as attar of rose to the odor which this child gave out every time it turned. There were fifteen homes similar to this in as many different places visited. In other abodes the houses were not as bad but all showed lack of care and hurry. In 35 there was neatness and order but these were presided over by a mother or aged relative who had evidently been addicted to cleanliness all their lives. There were no children "sewed up" for the winter in these residences. Instances like the first cited are not rare. Any doubting Thomas or Thomasine who wishes to enjoy them personally can do so by making a tour through some of the tenement districts in Hartford, not omitting Windsor Street and its surroundings.

In New Haven, Waterbury and Bridgeport the opportunities are large, and if any pilgrim on the Valley train wishes to take advantage of the period spent by that conveyance at Middletown in recuperating from the arduous journey from Hartford or New London, a most valuable and interesting sociological study can be obtained by wandering through the tenement district of which Lumber Street in Middletown is no inconspicuous part. The children there, however, are not bodily filthy, especially in the warm summer months when they display



PLAY ROOM, DAY NURSERY, CHENEY BROS., SOUTH MANCHESTER.



REST ROOM IN CHENEY BROS.' DAY NURSERY, SOUTH MANCHESTER.

a primitive, and on the score of convenience and cleanliness, commendable aversion to burdensome clothing.

Many of these homes from which the wife and mother escapes to work in the large, well lighted, well heated and generally far more attractive factory or shop, are wonderful examples of how to conserve space. One had a man, his wife and four children all sleeping in one room on a bed, a couch, and part of a mattress. In the closet adjoining, which was of fairly good size, there was the rest of the mattress where a boarder, the wife's brother, courted sleep when he was not disputing occupancy with vermin. The kitchen served for anything you might happen to call it. This apartment was sublet from an enterprising couple who draped themselves and a cousin in the remaining two rooms. The kitchen was run on the community plan. The mother of the children worked days. This menage would have been a desirable place for "isms" of a number of kinds but the epidemic took four of its inhabitants in two days.

Up to the end of 1917 the menace of the young mother in industry was not in the minds of other than the few who were aware of the circumstances surrounding her entrance and continuance. In fact, in the months preceding November 11th, 1918 she was coming to be considered as a factor to be depended upon rather than eliminated and provisions were being made for her comfort and the care of her children. Many mothers who worked had brought their children to existing day nurseries, paying cheerfully the charge for having them cared for while they labored; others had children come in after school and care for their little ones, others had aged relatives do the work. Still others had the older care for the younger and when they returned at night, did the cooking, washing, mending for the next or for as many days as they could. These women were generally the ones who had the home feeling developed in some degree and who felt it their duty to do something toward the comfort of their children and their husbands. The latter did not feel the hardships of the wife working as much as did the children. But in all the husbands interviewed on the matter there was not found enough to warrant a comparison of per cent. who favored the absence of their wives from children and home. In fact, the larger part were a little sore over it but admitted there was no use in kicking up a row. Several very intelligent men with a good class of wives said they recognized the discomfort and disadvantages but they did not feel justified in asking their wives to stay at home on account of

the high cost of living. They had no infant children. Those they had were well cared for. Both were laboring in order to keep ahead of their expenses and to ultimately gain their own home. These men were labor union members and in one case the man's wife was one of the most progressive and well-known women in the leadership of the labor unions of her city. Many men were found, however, who were not in favor of the young women working on account of the injury which would eventually be done to their children, because they thought the mother should be with the child when it was young and because they thought it would result in a bad effect on the wages of the men when the war was over. The view of the laboring man who is married and especially the view of the laboring man who is a member of a labor union is worth having on this matter.

Day nurseries in cities where women have been in the habit of leaving their children through actual necessity while they are working have been admirable substitutes as far as an institution can be for a mother. They have seen to the physical wants of the child and its health. These nurseries have not, however, been organized to care for the children of fathers and mothers who were making good wages and were amply able to have their children cared for at home. Nor were they supported by the public in order that women might shirk the responsibilities of motherhood and continue as a wage earner when there was no necessity for her so doing. The investigator has been told of one day nursery where a woman who was working, receiving good wages, had a husband working, receiving good wages, both living amicably together, yet both concurring in sending their child to a day nursery year after year, because they do not wish to be bothered maintaining a home. The day nursery as an encouragement and aid to women who have to labor to support their children is a necessity. The day nursery as a convenience for women who wish to make money while deliberately depriving their children of the companionship and character building which are greatest aids to the making of good citizens, is not far from being a menacing and undesirable institution. Whether or not the demands of the war would have increased the employment of young mothers, the investigator from the result of her observations, from the statements made to her, would have recommended the complete cessation of this sort of labor. Nurses in factories and physicians of large experience when questioned as to opinions on the employment of young mothers were a unit in condemning it and pointed out evils which

were certain to result, not hesitating to say it would make for a race of physical and moral degenerates.

In view of the tensivity of the situation over there where we needed all kinds of agencies to help win the fight, some of the men who were unsparing in denunciation of this class of labor, conceded it might be used for a short time. A letter illustrative of this condition of mind is here given :

“State Department of Health, Commonwealth of Massachusetts,

Boston, September, 1918.

“Committee on Child Conservation,

DAVID L. EDSALL,

WILLIAM J. GALLIVAN, M. D.

LYMAN ASA JONES, M. D.

Dr. Edsall has referred your letter to him to me for answer. The question of day nurseries in industrial plants has been discussed at considerable length by our Committee. We realize that on theoretical grounds the day nurseries ought to be discouraged and that all the mothers, so far as possible, stay at home and take care of their own babies. We realize also from the practical point of view the many instances it is impossible and that under the present war conditions the temptation to work at high wages is more than these mothers are able to resist. We have been unable thus far to take any definite stand in relation to day nurseries in general. There are several day nurseries that have seemed below even possible standards of cleanliness and these we have attacked. Others are being conducted along excellent lines and these we have done nothing about. At the present time there is a general movement in the state among all the agencies interested in the subject to present a bill to the next Legislature requiring that where day nurseries exist they shall be under the supervision of some proper authority. If this bill goes through, I think most of the disadvantages of the day nurseries, so far as the health of the children is concerned, can be taken care of. Of course we still have the economic disadvantage of the women being employed outside of their homes, which I think can be met only by a long process of education.

“I realize that this letter is very indefinite in character, but in the light of the present conditions, the committee has felt that it was not right to take a definite stand against all

day nurseries, neither do we want to record ourselves in favor of the establishment of day nurseries. We have, therefore, adopted this more or less drifting policy until there is a more satisfactory solution of the matter.

Very sincerely yours,

RICHARD W. SMITH, *Secretary.*"

Manufacturers, seeing the entrance of this labor, foreseeing the evils resultant from neglect of the children, sought to forestall them, and at the same time make the mothers feel more satisfied. To this end, they spent much money in fitting up nurseries where every help in the line of comfort, entertainment, education and food was given. The mothers brought their children to the plant when they came in the morning, saw them have their garments changed to spotlessly clean ones in some nurseries; slipped in to see them during the day, and really had reason to feel content. That is, some mothers. Other mothers deposited their children as they would so much baggage, reclaimed them at night, when they reached home put them to bed and spent a large part of the evening gallivanting around, free from all sense of care and getting themselves so fatigued that they were not worth as much, economically considered, as if they had had to have charge of their children. They drifted away from their children and their husbands. They lost the intense mother love which causes the real mother nature to long for constant companionship with and care for the child. The investigator knows of several cases where they did not develop morally as result of the removal of care, and has been told of some others.

One young mother whose husband had gone to Italy to fight for his country when it went to war, was in great distress because she was convinced that his family and himself, if he should happen to come back, would not exactly approve of her line of conduct. "Oh, if you do not help me, my modda and my fadda and my husband's modda and fadda will keel me." "Well, you did this once before, and you promised you were going to be good." "Yes, yes, but my husband, he may be keeled. Then he not come back. I marry thees man, it is not so bad, no. You will getta dis leetle baby in somewhere for me? Eet is my engagement baby."

If the war had continued and young mother labor was thought urgently needed, what would the investigator sug-

gest to take its place if a recommendation for its non-employment were observed?

One reason why so many of the manufacturers considered the day nursery in their premises was that it was urged upon them by patriotic women who saw the need of in part atoning to the child for the mother lack. These women were looking to the future. They were largely of the leisure class in that they had wealth and were free from the cares of young children. This class of woman could have been called on. She could have urged her maids to follow her example. And she would have gone promptly and efficaciously, as was shown by the splendid manner in which women of that very sort volunteered their services. It is an abundant class and an intelligent and patriotic one, which would not for a moment spare itself at the expense of coming generations.

The war is over. Industry is becoming normal. The first act of all employers of labor should be to release the young mothers save in the cases where they must work to support the children of their dead husbands. And, too, they should not be allowed to keep from employment the men whom they have displaced.

BONUS AND OTHER SYSTEMS AFFECTING WORKERS.

During 1917 and 1918 various methods were tried by the employers of the state for the purpose of inducing stability and steady production in the workers, notably in the munition plants. The bonus system held high favor in the minds of some but the success with which it operated largely depended on the manner in which it was applied. Even then careful consideration of its results and disadvantages warrants the belief on the whole it is a good system to omit.

Millions of dollars are lost every year by the unnecessary changes in employment of men. Many of these changes are due as much to the stubborn way in which some employers refused to get in line with up to date methods as to the tendency of the employees to move from place to place. Bonuses might be offered and wages might be raised but if there were some special disadvantages about the place of employment, a certain class of workers would leave for one which was preferred. Contrariwise, if bonuses were paid promptly and at short intervals to another class it would remain no matter what the working conditions.

Misrepresenting the truth about the payment of bonus was the cause of many workmen leaving plants having that feature in 1917-1918. The agents of these plants in seeking men for the factories gave them to understand that bonuses would be paid weekly when the truth was the payment was monthly or tri-monthly. In other places where the dissatisfaction arose, it was due to the firm not paying the bonus unless the worker was there on the exact time specified as to the day of the month. Example: If a bonus were to run three months, starting May 1st, and ending August 1st, the worker would not receive it if May 1st began on Sunday and he started work for the concern on May 2nd and worked to the end of the last working day, Saturday, July 31st. Perhaps this was technically right, but it might have saved considerable labor turnover by relaxing a little. Many men in the independent days of the great demand for workers went up into the air about this. Others who deliberately meant to only work the three months and obtain the bonus and who might have contracted to be working elsewhere on Monday, August 2nd, were enraged and made

complaint. The whole matter might have been amicably settled and explained by using tact.

It might have been the means of turning aside all trouble if each new employe was told the exact terms of the bonus the day he entered the employ of the concern. It is true that in plain sight was hung up the notice stating the terms of the bonus, but oral instruction conveys the idea much more clearly than printed, especially if the printed deals with a great amount of terms and specifications. Where the agents obtaining the men deliberately falsified, the statement of the truth upon giving the worker his number would have prevented trouble.

There were about 500 complaints on the bonus system received in this office during one month of 1917. These complaints were not recorded because it was thought the bonus was a voluntary offer on the part of the employer and could not be held as a wage agreement. That it should be so considered was afterward decided by the New York State Industrial Commission and the decision confirmed by appeal on a demurrer. The weekly bonus put in the envelop every pay night was a better plan. Herewith is given an example of a bonus in a town which has not been the scene of much labor trouble or turnover:

NOTICES!

It is the desire of the management of this company to continue during the coming year, the "Bonus" now in effect, but owing to the unusual condition confronting us, which makes the future more than ordinarily uncertain, we do not feel that we can obligate ourselves beyond July 1st, 1918. We, therefore, announce that we will pay a bonus of 10% on all wages earned during regular time hours from January 1st, 1918, to July 1st, 1918, but not on wages earned during over-time hours as this over-time is already being paid for at an advance of 50%.

On or before July 1st we will make a further announcement as to whether or not we will continue the bonus for a further period.

THE PLAN IF THE BONUS RUNS TO JULY FIRST ONLY.

All employees on the pay roll as of January 1, 1918, working day work and piece work who continue in the employ of the company until July 1st, 1918, will receive an extra 10% of their total earnings, during regular time hours, for the above period, distributed as follows:

21½% of the earnings as above for the first quarter, payable at the end of that period.

10% of the earnings as above, for the six months (less sum previously distributed) payable as soon as possible after July 1st, 1918.

EXAMPLE IF THE BONUS RUNS TO JULY FIRST ONLY.

Earning Period	Per Cent.	Gross Earnings	Previous Payments	Net Earnings
50×3=\$150.	2½	\$3.75	\$3.75
50×6= 300.	10	30.00	\$3.75	26.25

Making total payment \$30.

PLAN IF BONUS RUNS TO JANUARY FIRST, 1919.

All employees on the pay roll as of January 1st, 1918, working day work and piece work, who continue in the employ of the company during the full year, will receive an extra 10% on their total earnings, during regular time hours for the year, distributed as follows:

21½% of the earning as above for the first quarter, payable at the end of that period. 5% of the earnings as above for the first 6 months (less sum previously distributed) payable at the end of that period. 7½% of the earnings as above of the first 9 months (less sum previously distributed) payable at the end of that period. 10% of the earnings as above of the year 1918 (less sums previously distributed) payable at the close of the year.

Employees entering the service of the company between the 1st and 15th days of the first month of any quarter, will be permitted to participate in extra payments commencing at rate fixed for the first quarter.

Employees entering the service of the Company subsequent to the fifteenth day of the first month of any quarter will not be eligible to so participate until the next succeeding quarter.

Employees voluntarily leaving the service of the company during the year on account of sickness or other unavoidable reasons will be entitled to such extra payments computed as above basis to the time of so leaving.

Employees voluntarily leaving the service of the company or who are discharged for cause, forfeit the right to any extra payments, not already received.

The percentages herein set forth are calculated upon the total actual earnings of the employee during the periods indicated and are not based upon the hourly rate.

EXAMPLE IF BONUS RUNS A FULL YEAR.

Earning Period	Per Cent.	Gross Earnings	Previous Payments	Net Earnings
50× 3= \$150.	2½	\$3.75	\$3.75
50× 6= 300.	5	15.00	3.75	11.25
50× 9= 450.	7½	33.75	15.00	18.75
50×12= 600.	10	60.00	33.75	26.25

Making the total extra payment for year \$60.

The majority of firms during the war had what was practically some form of bonus based on the weekly earnings and given weekly. Benefit associations where sick members are cared for are supported in two ways, sometimes wholly by the members, sometimes by the members and firm. The latter is the general composition. The welfare work of these associations has been described elsewhere as well as some of the social benefits of membership. A form which is used in plants doing big business in peace times is given in sufficient detail to cover the general benefit systems.

"The treasurer of the association shall receive and hold all moneys belonging to the Association and shall pay it out only upon orders signed by the president and two directors, all checks must be signed by the treasurer and countersigned by the president. He shall deposit all moneys in the name of the Association in such bank or banks as the Board of Directors may designate. He shall furnish the Board of Directors at their meetings an account of all moneys received and paid out and the amount on hand.

"The Board of Directors shall have general supervision of the affairs of the Association. They shall have power to temporarily suspend the payment of dues whenever in their judgment such course seems advisable. The Board of Directors shall have power at such times as in their judgment it is just and necessary to levy an assessment on the Association to meet contingencies or excessive sickness or death, providing, however, that assessment shall not exceed 50c. for members of the first class, and 25c. for members of the second class, and that such assessment shall not be levied more than twice in one year. Further assessment may be levied by vote of two-thirds of the members present at a regular or special meeting.

"Any person in the employ of the company for four weeks shall be eligible to membership in the association upon application to the secretary and the payment of 50c. for members of the first class, and 25c. for members of the second class as an admission fee, the application, however, to be subject to the approval of the Board of Directors.

"Membership shall cease upon the resignation, suspension or expulsion of a member, upon his ceasing to be in the employ of the company, or upon his neglect to pay his dues for a period of four weeks. It shall be the duty of the Board of Directors to cause the names of persons coming within any of the above classes to be erased from the roll of membership. Temporary suspension from work shall not be considered as ceasing to be in the employ of the company.

"The membership shall be divided into two classes: First class consisting of those whose weekly pay is \$6.50 or more and the second class, whose pay is less than \$6.50.

"The dues of the first class shall be 4c. per week, and the second class, 2c. per week.

For convenience the dues will be deducted from the wages of the members of this Association by the paymaster of the company and paid by said paymaster to the secretary of the Association. The members of the association hereby authorize the paymaster of said company to deduct the dues from their wages and pay the same to the secretary of the Association. The payment of dues may be temporarily suspended by the Board of Directors whenever in their judgment the funds in the treasury have reached an amount sufficient to furnish a satisfactory working capital, said dues to be again resumed upon the order of the Board of Directors whenever in their judgment the capital has fallen below an amount necessary to carry forward the work of the Association.

"It shall be the duty of the visiting committee to visit all sick members and thoroughly investigate each case; to recommend the payment of such benefits as they find members entitled to, and to demand a doctor's certificate.

"Any member of the Association unable to attend to his or her duties through sickness or disability of said member, provided such disability does not arise through intemperance or from any immoral act on the part of such member, shall receive a benefit during such inability or sickness as follows: After the first week's sickness or disability, the sum of \$1 per day except Sundays, for members of the first class, and 50c. per day except Sundays, for members of the second class, said benefit to continue not to exceed ten weeks. Any member whose sickness or disability extends over a period of not less than 30 days shall be paid for the first week also. Any member being hurt or disabled while performing the ordinary duties for the Company shall receive benefits from the time he or she absents himself or

herself, provided the sick committee report favorably on his or her condition, in no case however to exceed 10 weeks.

"If any member entitled to benefits, and having drawn same and returned to work, is again taken sick in less than four weeks, such sickness shall be considered as a consideration of the first sickness, and members shall only be entitled to such number of days as added to previous term of days shall constitute ten weeks.

"Any member having drawn benefits for the full term of ten weeks shall not be entitled to further sick benefits until the expiration of the year, dating from the commencement of his or her disability. In case of disability caused by accidents to members during working hours, the aforesaid restrictions will not apply.

"No member shall be exempted from the payment of dues on account of sickness or disability, but must pay the amount of his or her dues to the treasurer of the Association or the amount may be deducted from the sick benefits. Any member having drawn benefits for the full term of ten weeks and being unable to perform the ordinary work for a further term of ten weeks, shall, provided they have not during that period worked for any other firm, corporation or individual, be considered in good standing and entitled to the funeral benefits of the association. Any arrears of dues for this period to be deducted from said benefit.

"All sick or disabled members shall within four days notify the secretary in writing or by mail, so as to receive their benefits commencing one week from time of sickness. If they fail to report within this time his or her benefits shall commence one week from the time such report is received. In any case where the board of directors shall have reasonable doubt as to the validity of any sick or accident claim made upon the Association, they shall be empowered to engage a doctor to make a careful medical examination of the case and report his findings to the board. The cost of said examination to be paid by the Association. Any member receiving benefits must sign a receipt for the amount and such receipt must be returned to the secretary and kept as a record.

"On the death of a member in good standing, a funeral benefit shall be paid to his family of \$50 for a member of the first class and \$25 for a member of the second class.

"If a member's salary during the period of his illness or disability is paid by the company, that member shall not be

entitled to sick benefits from the Association, but in case of his death, his heirs shall be entitled to the usual funeral benefit.

"Anyone detected in taking or attempting to take the benefits fraudulently shall be expelled from the Association.

"A quarterly statement of the financial condition of the association shall be posted in the key room of each factory in January, April, July and October of each year."

The best profit-sharing plan in the state to the investigator's knowledge is submitted with the statement that in the time since its adoption in February, 1917 to date—nearly two years—it has worked well and harmoniously:

"This plan is in recognition of the fact that a considerable part of the company's growth in the good will of the public, as well as its financial success, is the result of loyal and faithful services on the part of the employees.

"It is also intended to encourage thrift and saving on the part of employees, and to provide a fund in case of disability or death.

"It should be understood that this is a profit-sharing plan, and is no part of wages or salaries of an employee, but is given as an encouragement and incentive for better service.

"Each employee will be encouraged to seek promotion, which will come in recognition of more efficient service, and the increased wage or salary will bring an increased share in the bonus.

"In February, 1917, the company will pay over to five trustees, to be named by the directors, 20% of the final net surplus of the fiscal year 1916, after providing for annual amortization and dividends.

"This fund will be deposited by the trustees with a trust company, and an account opened to the credit of each employee who has been in the employ of the company two full years or more prior to January 1, 1917.

"The amount paid annually by the company to the trustees will be divided among the employees on the basis of length of employment. Those who have been in the company's service continuously during two years or more will, for the year ending December 31, 1916, constitute groups as follows:

Group 1—5 full years or more

2—3 full years but less than 5

3—2 full years but less than 3

The apportionment to be

5 parts to Group No. 1

3 parts to Group No. 2

2 parts to Group No. 3

EMPLOYEES' SAVINGS.

To enable employees to add to the company's contributions from their own savings, employees may subscribe to the stock of the company an additional amount, not exceeding their bonus. Deductions from salaries will be made weekly or monthly in such even amounts as the employees may elect.

"Interest at the rate of 5% will be credited to each employee annually on the total amount to his credit.

INVESTMENT.

"As soon as the deposits of any employee reach a sufficient amount, the trustees will invest it in common stock of the company. The usual stock certificate will be issued in the name of the employee, and delivered to him.

"For the calculation of the year 1916, the price at which stock will be allotted will be at par.

DIVIDENDS AND BONUS.

"The stock so held by an employee will earn the regular dividend declared quarterly by the directors of the company for all its common stock, and treasurer's dividend checks issued to each holder.

"To induce employees to retain the stock so acquired as a fund to be used in case of disability or retirement on account of age, the company will deposit to the credit of each employee who holds such common stock on December 31, 1917, an extra bonus equal to the regular cash dividends paid to him during the year, on stock acquired under this plan.

"This bonus will be forfeited by the sale of stock or by the resignation or discharge of an employee within three months of the time of the granting of the bonus.

"In case of the death of an employee, the full amount then standing to his credit, uninvested, will be paid to his estate or beneficiary by the trustee.

"In case of the resignation or discharge of an employee, said employee will forfeit all right to the contribution of the company, and extra dividend bonus on such common stock as he may hold.

"He may however, withdraw all other sums standing to his credit, after three months' notice to the trustee.

"The amounts deposited by an employee to his credit, which have not been invested, may upon application to, and with the approval of the trustee, be withdrawn.

"The company's contributions are purely voluntary, and based upon the full calendar year of employment.

"The trustees shall have full power to determine investments, withdrawals and all other questions arising in the application of this plan, and their decisions shall be final to determine the rights of any employee hereunder."

Despite all these provisions and the great increase in wages, there was much labor turnover in the state and much loss of time which resulted in loss of production for the manufacturer and loss of wages for the workers. The latter were in a measure responsible for this, as where men and women received high wages they did not work all the week, some months, or some weeks, either for that matter. Some would stop for a day or two and enjoy themselves.

The loss of wages by breaks in the hours worked, by sickness and by accidents resulting in the ceasing of labor for several days or weeks and by strikes and walkouts not lasting long enough to amount to strikes amounts to millions.

Of all plans presented to offset it, the profit-sharing has been most successful.

LUNCH ROOMS.

It has been pretty well demonstrated that whatever a man can do without books he cannot do without cooks. Something to eat is a necessity and something nourishing and inexpensive is a blessing to the worker of today. So much energy is consumed and men live with such intentness that the relaxation of the lunch hour, even without food, is a relief.

The lunch rooms in factories are one of the best investments in the return of increased health, satisfaction and appreciation. Of course, there are always many who go home at the lunch hour, even if they have to use the cars to do so. Undoubtedly if they had a nourishing and tasty menu at a low cost they would not do so, no matter how much they like to be with their families. Those who live near go home as a matter of course but there are hundreds who have to bring their lunches with them when they leave home between 6 and 7 in the morning. These cold lunches are good enough but they are not especially appealing except to real hunger. They are likely to be made up of a variety of remnants of the meals of the previous day. Many of them are actually put up over night. In many cases the coffee is made the night before and warmed up for breakfast and the remainder put in the lunch bottle. Many who carried their lunch boxes in the pre-war days when food was reasonably abundant used to throw away a deal of it rather than bring it back. In the war days they carried the surplus home and it was eaten by the children. It occurs more often than would be thought possible for many men to have to prepare not only their own lunches but their breakfasts also. The lunch generally consists of a sandwich with either cold meat, ham from the delicatessen store or egg between the bread, some cake or pie and the coffee. This was the actual experience of a young man who worked in a large ship building concern. His wife never thought of getting a nourishing breakfast or preparing a tasty lunch for him.

Arriving at the factory the lunch box is stowed away somewhere until noon, when the owner sits on a board like the rest of his fellow workers, or lies outside on the earth or grass, if there be any, consumes the lunch as expedi-

tiously as he can and then gets out his pipe or cigarette. Sometimes the men sit around in the room in which they have been working, getting no change of air. If they have time after swallowing their lunches and there is a "cafe" near, they are almost certain to patronize it to some extent. This is the routine that is followed in many factories today.

But the managers are coming to realize that in order to have the best results in production the men should receive the chance to change from the room in which they have been working and to have the proper proportion of protein, carbohydrates and fat in their food to insure the upkeep of the body. They probably do not divide up the food according to its chemical properties when they are thinking of it, but they sum it up in the thought that a good square meal is a need that ought to be filled. They understand that it is just as needful to repair the wastes of the body as it is to supply good wearing parts in a machine.

Demands of labor betterment condition include rest and emergency rooms but rarely insist on the dining or lunch room in the factory. This is an essential need even if it is run at a loss as far as money is concerned, although in passing it can be stated that none of those in operation get much below the actual cost and some break even. But it is a business measure. It is a great deal better to spend money in taking care of the bodies of the workers in the plants than to devote it to paying experts to study the relation between fatigue and efficiency; to stoke up the machine so it will be able to resist fatigue.

Lunches were served in factories and shops to foremen and office help long before it was thought well to extend the service to workers in the main body. This procedure never failed to excite adverse criticism among the latter. It is easier to get 200 office employees than it is to obtain 20 factory workers.

To have full value the lunch or dinner, whether at home or in the shop, should be properly proportioned. That is why a lunch served in a factory dining room or cafeteria when it is made up according to food properties is more satisfying and gives better nourishment than a hastily scrambled together collection of food ends or even the inevitable slice of bread and meat that goes into the lunch box at home. The body is really a furnace that must be supplied with fuel. If the eater does not know how to get the best results, someone must prepare the food for him.

Many are seen who devour enormous quantities of food and yet are more unnourished than the neighbor alongside



A FIRST CLASS WOMEN'S DINING ROOM IN FACTORY.



MEN'S DINING ROOM IN ILUMENTHAL'S SILK MILL, SHELTON.

who does not eat a third as much. The average person, whatever his position, does not know how to compound the properties of his food. That is why there is so much attention paid to dietetics. A factory or shop which furnishes meals to its help for the purpose of keeping it in good condition must have the food proportioned to give the proper quantities of nutrition. If it cannot afford a dietitian to prepare it, or has no trained nurse who should get out the menu for each day, a daily list of what food to have can be readily obtained from any home economics institution.

Where an industry furnishes coffee, tea, cocoa or milk to its help, its task is light; where it merely permits the use of gas and electricity for the making of these beverages, it is lighter still and of less real value, being merely an aid to digestion. Where it furnishes a well balanced meal, the worth in dollars to employee and employer does not need much explanation. Many places have small rooms, run on the counter plan, where the food is served to them or they select it themselves. Usually these have the cooking operations in full sight. Under the counters is stored the food that is to be served and milk. Sometimes the company leases this sort of a place to someone who makes a good profit on it, sometimes the company runs it itself. Often this lunch counter is found in foundries and other places where greasy work is done and the men think they are not dressed enough to go outside and sit at tables. The counter lunch has its good points, but the factory that has a room where tables are set, around which the men can sit, and having eaten, read, smoke or play cards has a stronger hold on human nature. The best returns are found from the rooms having tables, windows and some attractive setting. A number have the tables set on the long banquet line plan, running down the center of the room and seating anywhere from 30 to 50 on each side in close quarters. These tables are covered with oil cloth in some places, and in others are left bare and scrubbed off daily. The disadvantage of the long tables is there is not enough feeling of ease and relaxation, nor the space in which to lounge comfortably after the meal.

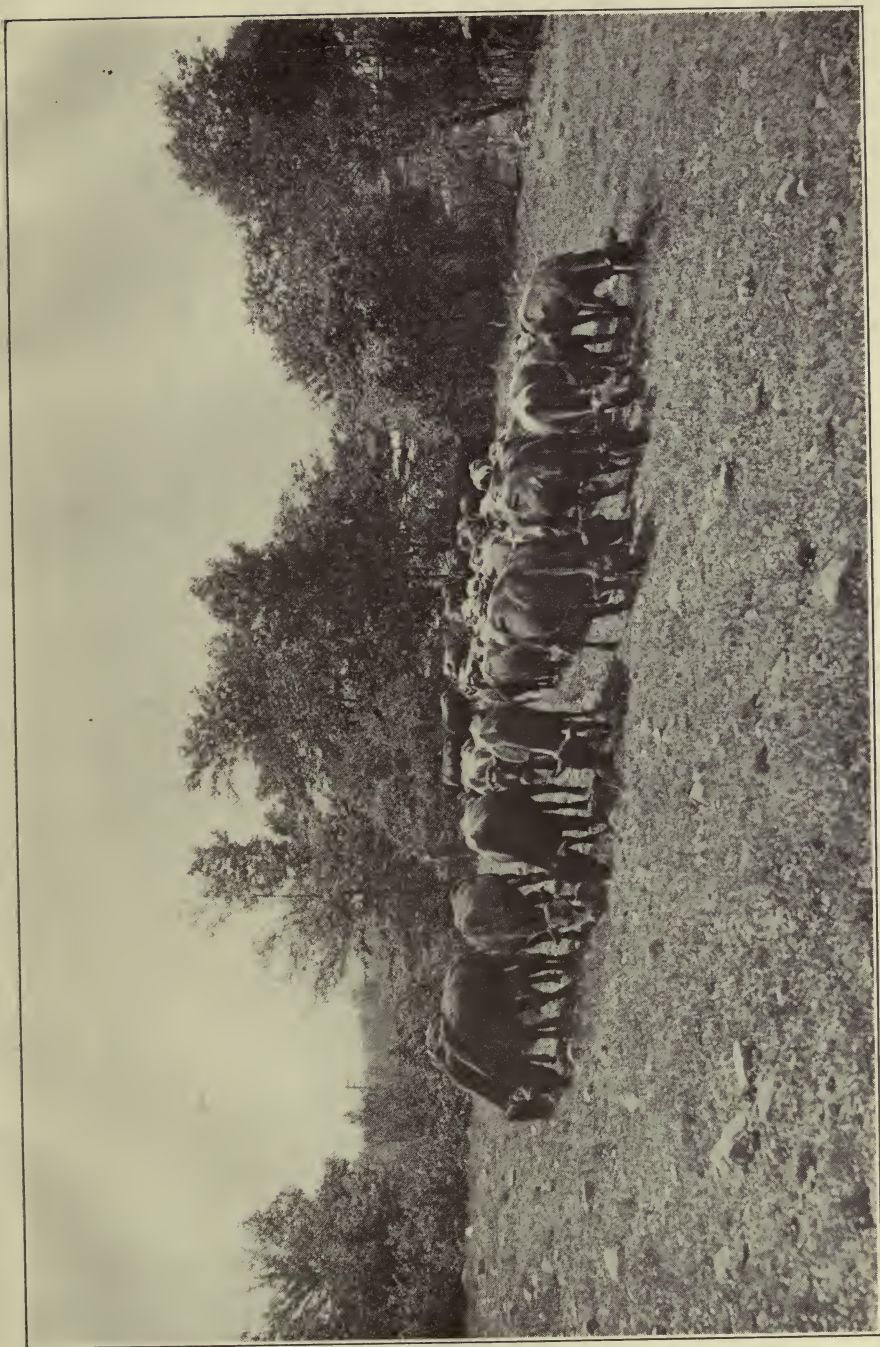
The big silk plants of the state, Cheney Bros., Blumenthal Co. and Hemingway were about the first to have lunch rooms. The pictured lunch room of the Blumenthal Co. shows the men's section. They are seated around tables playing cards after having eaten their lunch. The women's section is more attractive than this.

The tables which permit men or women to form their own group of associates around which they can sit and linger during the balance of the noon hour are the only ones which should be installed where lunch rooms are being made. The tops should be of vitrolite which looks well and is easily kept clean.

It sounds a bit formidable to lay down rules as to the ingredients of factory lunches, the general idea being that a cup of coffee, a sandwich and a piece of pie constitute a sufficient meal and can be set down before a hungry worker at little effort and time. The process of getting a nutritious meal is not difficult. It is simple and should be based in reference to the amount of good the person fed is to receive. Since the era of high prices it is true that people have cut their living expenses as much as they could, even doing this about food when they are reckless in other directions. Any factory manager having a restaurant that is directed by an intelligent person can easily discover and many of them have already discovered the noon day meal served is the one which is really the mainstay of the worker. It is better proportioned than anything he would buy for his home and he can enjoy it under absolutely harmonious circumstances. It is a psychological as well as physical fact that food eaten with a tranquil mind is sure to give the system benefit. Few home dinner tables but have some thought introduced about the price of the food or the discussion of some matter not wholly pleasant.

In the state, 38 firms or large size are furnishing lunches, and possibly more since the establishments were visited, as several were then contemplating such additions. A number served coffee and tea. Others permitted the use of kitchen arrangements where the workers could make these drinks, bringing in the material. Others had dining rooms for the office force and some for the foremen. These are not counted in enumerating the establishments having lunches. In no plant is the lunch served free. It is, however, given at cost. In 1918 a man could have in several of these places a nourishing and well planned meal of soup or stew, one meat other than in the latter if it were chosen, bread, butter, coffee, milk or cocoa, and cake or pie for 25 and 30c. Of course he could order what he wanted and pay as much as he liked. A sustaining lunch could be obtained from 20 to 25c. by women.

There is absolutely no profit in the line of money being earned by the company or turned in by running the lunch rooms. That some of them are carried on at a loss has been



ONE OF THE HERDS OF CATTLE RAISED BY SCOVILL CO. FOR USE IN ITS CAFETERIA.

shown. The better the grade of food and the way in which the room is equipped, the more cost to the company in money. But it pays in greater efficiency, in assurance that the help is getting fed and in a better frame of mind among the workers due to the social intercourse. Many people who work in factories and other kinds of business for that matter, go without a lunch at noon for reasons of economy. The practice is more common among women than men and after awhile the women are sure to show the effects of such abstinence. They do not mind it if they have saved up some money toward a desired end. Some of them do not skip the meal because of economy. They do it because there is no place near where they want to eat and because they do not desire to carry a lunch and cannot get a lunch if they are rooming.

If the war had continued there would have been increase in the lunch rooms and the practice of giving food to workers between the meal hours would have been introduced. It was found most effective in England and France. The war is over, but industrial work will go on even if somewhat lessened in certain directions. In fact, it will extend in others. It will be just as essential and even more so, to make provisions for factory workers in this line. More so, because it cannot be denied that men and women have cut down on their food ratio to a degree that has decreased their general strength, even if they have not perceived it.

The changes that have come lead to some relaxation of the welfare work. That is where the danger lies. Some work, especially the feeding part of it, should be extended. It is a good proceeding for capital and for labor. There is no touch of philanthropy about it. It is business.

THE HIGH COST OF LIVING.

The high cost of living is not only in the price paid out but in the effect on the bodies and minds of the people of this country whether in or out of the state, whether working or at leisure. It appears to have reached its acme. That there will be a sudden or even moderately quick descent is hardly likely to be realized this year unless there is some vigorous action taken by the national government. On the contrary, commodities which might be supposed to be free from sudden jumps are going skyward now. Coffee, a beverage nearly everyone has to drink and which might help to assuage the thirst of a prohibitionized country is going to be hard to obtain at any price, and, particularly, will show increase in price. The singular manner in which dealers learn of anticipated jumps in prices and the slowness with which the news of reduction reaches them are illustrated by an incident which occurred in October, 1918. At that time it was stated in the papers the government intended to tax teas and coffees. The statement was printed broadcast. Immediately that part of our population in which the Polish and Italian element is strong prepared in a certain town to take time by the forelock. The grasp was so strong and effectual that the manager of a big store was aroused when customer after customer of Polish origin came in and bought coffee in quantities ranging from 50 to 100 pounds to ask some one "What's up?" He was informed of the rumor which was the first he had heard of the intended taxation. In another store a customer who knew nothing about the taxing of her favorite drink asked for five pounds of tea. She lived out in the country and usually bought it somewhat in bulk. She was informed that grade was going up 10c. per pound. Naturally asking why, she was told of the taxation coming.. This happened in October, 1918. It was a clear case of profiteering.

Before going into detail concerning the high cost of living as affecting the industrial workers, a little space may be, and ought in justice, to be devoted to this *soaring* in reference to a class which it affects considerably and which has never received any consideration from the public. This is the middle class composed of salaried workers, office employees, draughtsmen, accountants, in short the sort of people whose

position requires a certain standard of living and housing and whose wages do not advance in proportion to the rise in price of fuel, food and clothing. Since 1916 the advance in salary of this class of men and women has not been 20% on the average. True, there are many exceptional cases where in war emergency and the demands for increased numbers of clerks and stenographers, wages have been raised anywhere from 25 to 35% in individual instances. This rise, however, is not permanent nor general. Nor, it is safe to say, does it affect people who are likely to use it in the way of saving or a provision for the future. Many of the recipients of the increase adopted a style of living and clothing which consumed the extra allowance and left them at the end of the period no better off than before they received more pay. The larger number, however, had no choice about spending the increase. It was an absolute necessity that every dollar they earned went at once to the butcher and baker, in a smaller degree for clothing and other necessities, to say nothing of the rent. Summing it up, the middle class really has suffered and still suffers more from the advance in the necessities of life than has or does any other set of workers.

The year 1919 does not open promisingly for this very necessary part of the business world. It has been a general practice as quickly as actual or forecasted business depression is considered to begin retrenchment with the salaried list, even if the cutting down of expense does not start at once, in wage lowering, there is decreasing of employees.

The number deprived of employment cannot obtain it as quickly as unskilled labor or unionized labor, and pride does not permit going into the former sort of work. The consequence is that many families having such members are obliged to support them until they secure the positions they are able to fill. Apart from this there is manifest injustice in having a large and most effective class of workers of the state kept at about the same wage standard year after year, no matter what additional burden is placed upon them. The years of 1916-1917-1918 saw the work of every office force increased to an extent that is not to be measured by figures. It mounted up so that more employees had to be engaged in some concerns and in others a force of the regular employees was detailed to just take care of the additional work caused by the questionnaires sent out relating to war matters.

The employees who were young and could find other places "kicked" and received some increase of compensation. Not as large in proportion as that gained by the machinist

or the laborer who made a demand. The older ones who were held back by families and knew they would have some difficulty in securing places which would be permanent suffered in silence.

Statisticians have been kept busy compiling figures as to the cost of living for the past few years. Some sets showed that it was not as great as imagined and others showed what it was in the wholesale line. Others devoted long columns to comparisons with previous rises and deductions concerning the causes. No one seemed to hit the nail on the head by declaring that while some increase in the prices of food and fuel was inevitable on account of the demands of the European nations, and the freight and other difficulties, there was absolutely no excuse for the outrageous prices that afflicted the country during the year 1918 and which seem likely to remain an affliction for some time.

The winter of 1917-1918 was the hardest on the people of the country that America has ever known. Losing such calories through voluntary patriotic reduction in food consumption they were suffering from lack of heat in workshops, factories and homes. The winter of 1918-1919 thus far has been mild but there still exists the high price of fuel, both coal and wood. The investigator while writing this looked out to see if the sight which has been presented every day would be visible, that of two children carrying bags of coal to their home. They are not the only two thus engaged. With food, clothing, fuel, light, and rent still at prices bearing no relation to what it should be; with children going without sufficient milk, with people paying out high prices for food and then receiving minute proportions, with mothers scrimping on butter and eggs, meat and vegetables, it is not pessimistic to wonder a little why with all the conferences gathered together and the officers created to fill commissions that grow like mushrooms or toad-stools, the question of getting food in abundance and at reasonable price does not enter into reconstruction and betterment schemes.

It is stated that the rise in wages has been so great that the rise in the cost of living was not so excessive. In connection with this the rise in wages did not affect everyone, and the rise in the price of living was at all times far ahead of the other. Statistics appeal to many. Therefore, it can be taken for granted the rise in the cost of living was between 55% and 60% on an average. In some communities even more. The rise in wages averaged about 41% in its most lofty ascent. Of course in some localities with some

occupations, it was more. One or two reports received by the industrial investigator show it was as much as 100%. That was because the wage previous to that was really low. Here is a list of the wages and occupations taken from one concern, one which was only partly engaged in war work and which represents a steady going and not greatly fluctuating industry. This list was furnished the latter part of 1917:

CLASSIFICATION OF EMPLOYEES ACCORDING TO TRADE OR
KIND OF EMPLOYMENT.

No.	Trade	Av. Daily Wage
15	Shop clerks	\$2.75
20	Foremen	5.00
34	Shop helpers	2.45
2	Firemen	3.50
3	Sweepers	2.75
1	Janitor	3.00
1	Night watchman	3.50
1	Nurse	3.00
29	Inspectors	2.10
5	Brushers	1.65
17	Solderers	2.25
1	Japanner	2.90
8	Machine hands	2.90
3	Draughtsmen	4.10
5	Lab. assistants	3.20
2	Mixers	3.65
32	Molders	3.20
10	Pressmen	3.00
15	Assemblers	2.20
3	Packers	3.00
11	Trimmers	2.75
1	Wireman	3.80
2	Filers	2.10
19	Writers	1.75
7	Labelers	2.20
4	Carpenters	3.65
1	Engineer	4.50
8	Drillers	2.10
6	Punch Press hands	2.50
1	Riveter	2.25
4	Foreladies	2.85
12	Fillers	2.00
4	Drill Press hands	2.75
11	Toolmakers	4.50
6	Machinists	4.00
1	Lathe hands	3.65
3	Steam fitters	3.50

The wages detailed were advanced in 1918, computing the successive raises made, about 30%. The cost of living in that locality rose to 47%. It is easy to figure the ratio between expense and receipts. This represents pretty ac-

curately the general condition. Averaging is not resorted to here because though it is needful in the statistical line to give averages, the investigator believes they are not just to individual instances.

The people do not care much for comparisons of prices. What they are interested in, is the price they are paying to-day. Certainly they make the comparison of the rise in cost in all items in reference to the rise in wages. Besides, the rise in price affects more than the wage earning and salaried class. It affects a large number entitled to some consideration who are living on incomes shrunk to a twentieth of their size five or six years ago; who are suffering from government experiments in lowering railroad values; widows and orphans of men, not all of them capitalists, who thought they were insuring their families comparative comfort by investing in railroad and other stocks, and by buying property whose rental would be an assured income. Now these people have to consider that the coming years are to bring them such increased taxation in order that the government may have a revenue, in order that the state may have a revenue to replace that removed or eliminated, that the cost of living is going to be a hard problem for them.

Clothing and its material has advanced anywhere from 75% to 100% and 160%. Rent from 15 to 50%, fuel from 20 to 45%, in some localities more. In the case of the families who buy coal by the bag, 45% does not cover the increase. Food may be said to have made an almost uniform advance of 60%. The various sundries which go to make up a family budget, such as reading, medicine, little extraordinary expenses, doctors, dentists, etc., are not estimated at all.

The one item of amusement, such as theatre, is taxed outrageously, so that it looks as if people would have to amuse themselves by staying home and planning how to live sans everything.

January 15th, 1919, bargain prices for pork roast in the state were 32c. a pound; leg of mutton, 30c.; legs of veal, 28c.; lamb, 38c.; forequarters, 30c.; Boston rolled roasts of beef, 30c.; shoulder roasts, 28.; pot roasts 26.; corned beef, 25c.; fresh pork shoulder, 32c.; porterhouse steak, 70c.; round, 30 to 38c.; sirloin and short, 38 to 45c.; beef liver, 12 to 18c.; potatoes 45 to 50c. per peck; eggs, 85 to 90c. per dozen, "strictly fresh laid, native;" storage eggs, 58c a dozen; bacon, 38c. per pound a strip; good flour, \$1.40 to \$1.60 per bag, a great reduction; sweet potatoes, 15c. a

quart; condensed milk from 13 to 18c. a can; coffee 32 to 38c.; cabbage, 3c. a pound; cauliflower, 25c. to 40c. a head; string beans 30c. a quart; oranges, 50 to 90c. a dozen; turnips, 5c. a pound; butter 66 to 75c. a pound, onions, 3 to 4c. a pound; grapefruit, 10 to 15c. apiece; carrots 4 to 5c. a pound; apples, 75c. to \$1 a peck for eating, and 50c. for cooking; cheese, a great food with many, not fancy varieties, 45 to 50c.

This is a fair allotment from which to pick out a substantial meal. It is also on the whole a lowering of prices. One item most essential, particularly to children, does not appear on the list, and is not in the reduced column—that of milk. The truth should be emphasized that during the epidemic, which has by no means become a thing of the past, many children were underfed and undernourished and suffered the loss of resisting vitality through the cutting down of their milk supply. The same thing applies to adults who left off milk and took to other kinds of beverages, and who drank coffee without using milk. This acted as a stimulant but one which quickly subsided and was the cause of making the body weaker. There was not only a decrease in the use of milk but also in forms of food whose basis is milk, on account of the increase in prices. Milk, more than anything else, is the food that is essential to the young, the middle aged, the invalid and the old. Old people can digest and flourish on milk with other ingredients; middle aged can make a meal on milk and bread, and derive nourishment. Children positively must have it.

It is the item which was first trimmed in nearly every family in the state. Many have the notion that doing away with it is no harm. They were aware of its value but simply could not have it in the quantity they had previously. One man who earned \$35 a week and had two children, was accustomed to take two quarts daily, this he cut down to one. Milk has gone from 8c. a quart in 1916 to 16c. for plain, unadorned milk without any blue ribbons on its neck.

When a commodity increases in price the consumer protects himself by using less. Many say that the quality of the milk is not as good as formerly; it is less rich. Many women take cow's milk and mix it with the condensed variety when giving it to their children. But the condensed milk has so advanced that many are afraid they are not really economizing in so doing. The use of skim milk has been recommended. In talking with mothers and suggesting its use in greater abundance, there was general prompt negative. It may be nutritious but it would take more than

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argument to make 99 out of 100 mothers try it on their children. A mother rather pithily expressed "Why don't those people who want us to use skim milk use it themselves? That would leave more for the babies." The money expended in insuring the purity of the milk supply is well used. The boards of health all through the state are doing fine, systematic work under the direction of the State Board of Health. There is much improvement in this respect since 1914, when some dangerously lax conditions existed. It is not so much with the health conditions as with the price of milk that concern should be manifested. An element of food that is vital need for the proper nourishment of the weakest element of our future should not be allowed to advance 100 or 150% without sharp inquiry into the real or alleged causes.

The consumption of ice cream, a food product from milk, has been cut. Families who never let a day pass or a Sunday dinner go without making ice cream a part of the meal, could not locate the ice cream freezer today. They would not think of spending the money for cream as they have been educated to hold it a luxury. Yet it has great nutritive value. In this connection, the falling off in the purchase of candy is about 65%.

Another milk product, butter, has decreased about 45% in purchasing. Children who used to think a thick slice of bread and butter was to be eaten under protest are now glad to have the treat.

Fruit which has a medicinal as well as food value is rarely even seen on the tables of the majority. Eggs are 59% reduced in consumption, according to the statements of grocers, and about 89% increase in price over what they should be. Farmers are not to be blamed for this state of affairs. With the price of grain and labor at the summit, the farmer does not have too much profit on his poultry and egg department. The blame lies higher up.

Reference has been made to the increase in the price of meat. That increase in price should not be considered without the decrease in its use. That is over 50%. Many do not eat meat at all since it went up in price. Some of the people with whom the investigator talked, gave lectures on the bad influence of red meat on the character and on the lack of value of white meat. They demonstrated that by consuming a couple of bales of some other food substitute a much more desirable moral and physical equipment would be insured. 99%, however, wanted meat, if it were not on the table they had a craving for it. Meat in the state of

Connecticut is about as high as it can go and considerably higher than in some other states. In the industrial centers during their heyday of work, the price of meat increased over 60% and its quality decreased. Shank soup meat which made the foundation for a filling and body nourishing meal increased from 5 and 6c. a pound to 22c. and over.

Olive oil which is one of the most valuable food products for a large foreign element of the population has increased in price 175% and decreased in consumption about 80%. Imported olive oil has not been asked for for over a year. Its price rose exactly 175%. The substitutes offered do not fill the requirements of the users. It will be about nine years before California can profitably and largely supply this valuable nutriment.

Cheese is a food rather than a condiment to many of our residents and citizens. It is not bought in half the amount it was in 1916, nor are the varieties offered for sale. Taking the estimate of one large firm, the decrease in demand was such that during the months from January 1st to August 1st, 1918, the demand was but a small fraction over the sales for the month of January, 1915. Milk cheese was suggested in the summer of 1918 as a valuable article that should be used more largely, but the suggestion found no favor with the foreign born, who use cheese more than any other element of the population.

All substitutes for wheat and the wheat products used for cereals were outrageously high in 1918. Their prices have fallen but in no proportion to their abundance. These substitutes were many of them just as valuable food nutritives, but their price was prohibitive.

The 1918 estimate for living includes not only the money spent but the money saved by retrenchment. Perhaps in some instances that retrenchment was the gravest sort of expense for it was a retrenchment which seriously menaced the health of women and children, affecting men in a lesser degree. In every family expense was cut down a third, and in many one-half.

While different business centers can show a great outlay for clothing, amounting in individual cases to extravagance, the general trend was toward conservation among the salaried class. Those who spent money most freely for clothing of expensive quality were the munition workers in Bridgeport and other war plant locations. The merchants of the state dealing in women's clothing and like accessories say they never had a more prosperous season than that of 1917-1918. The advance in the price of cloth-

it is held until 16 to a course of study which keeps it out of the illiterate class and fulfills the obligation of the state. Many who might like a college training have not the means to continue. More than 70% must have some reliable way of providing for their future that lies outside the lines of academic education. The last year of the schooling of the boy and girl who are in school to stay until they reach the age that liberates them is not productive of much good to them individually. They are simply trying to get by. When some of this sort leave the public schools it is customary to go to business college to obtain commercial training.

The number who go immediately to work after 16 is not a decreasing but an increasing quantity. Circumstances are going to make it still larger. It is not uncommon for families to strain every nerve to keep their children in school. Among the people of foreign birth where large families predominate often two or three children are in the same grades at the same time. It is no small drain on the family resources to support the children. To receive an education which shall be useful as well as academic is the right of the children. Such an education can be given so that their mental and manual equipment will be cared for. Any teacher who has devoted time to studying her pupils will corroborate the statement that between 14 and 16 over 70% of the boys who leave school are the ones who did not take any special interest in the usual education, in fact, were boys many of whom had fallen far behind. Had industrial training been a part of the system those boys and the smaller per cent. of girls who drop out would have remained.

In a state like Connecticut where so large a proportion of the population is engaged in industrial work and is dependent on it for its living, it seems there should be recognition that the children who are being educated and who leave school as early as the law allows are not receiving the proportionate consideration which equity demands. In other words, are children not inclined for higher education getting the just return from the educational system maintained at such an outlay? Does it not seem where the smaller number of children continue and expense is incurred for them that they receive a larger benefit? But this cannot be set down as injustice so much as the result of circumstances.

However a more equitable arrangement can be made whereby mechanically inclined children may continue their education longer, certain that it is going to give them a

greater market value when they enter the working lines. Nor does it mean that their work will be purely manual. There are many branches of vocational education such as draughting and engineering work that could be added to the curricula of the higher grade schools with advantage. Grade schools should have what is called pre-vocational work. The manual training high school should continue it as vocational. It will be found that if this be made general instead of exceptional there will be greater continuance in school and better classes of workers sent out. Something should be done so that pupils who have to stop at the grammar school stage shall have more benefits than they derive at present, even if it entailed adding another sort of junior high school grade to the grammar.

An endeavor was started by the investigator to find out from the superintendents of schools in the largest industrial centers some information which could be used in answering the questions: How large a proportion of the scholars leaving school quit because of necessity or disinclination to study, and what fields have they entered? What proportion of those who sought high school training were native born or had direct foreign ancestry? What effect the food restrictions had on the health of the children in the lower grades? What co-operation existed between public day and evening schools and factory schools and factory managements?

The time was too short to obtain answers which would be representative. To tell the truth, some of the superintendents had never thought of the matter and one or two showed no interest whatever. The superintendent of the Hartford public schools evinced interest, although since finding the time did not permit of answers from the superintendents and equal justice to all, the matter was not passed. Special thanks are due to Superintendent Beede of the New Haven schools for his recognition of the needs of some such inquiry as that which is rather crudely outlined here, and also for the prompt courtesy and co-operation he has shown in furnishing data concerning the nationalities of the pupils in the public schools of that city.

The report for 1918 will not be ready until February 1st, 1919. That for 1917, which was received in February, 1918, showed there were in New Haven schools 27029 children of whom 8115 were Americans of several generations' descent; 1304 born of Irish parents; 926 of German; 8578 of Italian; 4486 of Russian; 466 of Polish; 655 of Negro, 473 of English, 485 of Swedish, and of foreign born 1754.

There is no question but that more than 80% of that number would be directly interested in, and benefited by, vocational education. Provision is now making for such training of disabled soldiers. That training is not wholly the vocational training of the kind considered here, but it necessarily embraces some of it. Many of the soldiers who are returned and returning, both well and disabled, had no training before they left. Their chances of obtaining and holding good employment would be manifestly better if they had such a basis.

At present under the auspices of the State Board of Education trade schools are conducted at Bridgeport, Danbury, New Britain, New Haven, South Manchester, Putnam, Torrington, Waterbury, New London, Meriden, and Stamford will be added during the year. In those in existence there are 3000 pupils.

GREATER INCREASE OF HEALTH VIGILANCE IN THE STATE.

In the report of 1915-1916 issued in 1917, the investigator called attention to the greater need of sanitary regulation in a number of industries. These had been regarded as rather outside the pale of inquiry. As a consequence the conditions were extremely bad in many. Were these of such a nature that only the workers in the places would be affected, the menace, however serious, would not entail general evils. But the character of the industries were such that all who patronized them incurred danger if cleanliness and strict guard on the composition of the materials and the condition of the workers employed were not observed.

These industries were the restaurant, Chinese and other laundries, soda water dispensaries, whether at the counters of drug stores, dry goods stores or regular ice cream and candy "emporiums." While some of these places were already well cared for and others passed the requirements of the law, there were enough of large and small to make cleanliness a desirable addition to their outfit.

The laundries conducted by white men have been wonderfully improved. In many of them lockers were placed for the clothing of the employees, although the price of the lockers was 225% higher than in 1916. One of the largest laundries in the state, situated in Hartford, not only put in lockers but took extra precautions with the drinking water and the sanitary equipment. Others all over Connecticut have made improvements suggested to them, so that the condition of the laundries operated by white men is above the requirements of the law. The beginning of 1919 shows only a small per cent. who have to be goaded into action. This does not by any means lessen the need of careful inspection. In the laundry business, perhaps more than any other, the customer is so benefited or imperiled by the sanitation of the laundry's work that extra vigilance is needed, particularly when it is known that the shifting forces in these places are made up of all sorts of people, since the war drew to the munition industries the men and women who were formerly employed in the laundries. This migratory labor is more likely to require care and scrutiny

than the steady employes who lived near by or whose names were on the payrolls for years.

The statements made in the Industrial Report of 1917 issue on the imperative need of supervision as to cleanliness and other reasons over the Chinese laundries have been amply corroborated by the number of arrests made in the intervening years in various places. The owners and habits of this class of laundry where it is a cover for other occupations are still subjects for increased attention.

There are yet some public laundries engaged in doing tuberculosis work. Owing to the outbreak of the war the commission had to delay building the laundries in connection with the institutions. The construction has simply been deferred, as it will undoubtedly be undertaken the coming spring and summer.

Since attention was called to the dangers which were real and not figments of imagination, there has been in every city in the state greater care taken of the cleanliness and character of the food and its preparation in restaurants and hotels. Health officers deserve commendation for their work in the restaurant line. The practice of having a card certifying to the restaurant's sanitation is admirable.

One drawback to getting results is the insufficient number of health officers. While other branches of city government grow to meet the enlarged demand, health departments remain behind. This is not a profitable form of economy nor one that meets with public approval. There is no community which would not welcome an expenditure which would safeguard its health, nor is there any community which would not promptly condemn disregard of public health on the part of a health board or any other authority whose duty it was to prevent disease from spreading. One hundred dollars spent for prevention is worth more than one hundred thousand squandered in endeavor to effect cure. There is need of sounding the tocsin of alarm continually. With the restaurant manager the fact that cleanliness is a business asset is being established. Patrons may not rise up and denounce them when they discover something wrong with their order, but they have just as effective a way of taking dollars and patronage elsewhere. This was the way last summer when a lady with a party of good liveries and generous spenders found the lobster served her full of maggots. That restaurant will find newspaper advertising in the locality in which she lives an unprofitable venture this summer.

When the business of inspecting the restaurants was started by the state in 1914-1915, there was indignant resentment. But even the most hardened restaurant manager whose olfactory nerves have never been working and whose eyesight had dimmed, when led to his refrigerator and asked to look at the shelves and to pull forth the articles lurking thereon, when told to view and smell the compounds going into ragout and stews and croquettes, and goulashes, had to admit that some of them were a bit off. As one man observed: "I must say the boys are a little too careful about saving things. I never eat anything but steak and good French fries myself. I never ate a croquette in my life, and I don't know anything about them."

In the greater part of the restaurants of today, the kitchens no longer have dark and filthy corners where cockroaches revel, nor do the cooks carry layers of dirt on hands and face and aprons; nor do the dishwashers use the same water all day and wipe off the dishes with the same greasy, dirty towels. They are vastly improved. The scrap pot has not so many varieties of left over and scrapings, partly because the restaurant is afraid to have it and partly because in the days of Hooverizing, it was a clean plate which went back to the kitchen. The food was not the only possible injury to the health of patrons. While bakers were inspected and were under a wholesome law concerning the health and cleanliness of the persons employed, restaurants and hotels could have and often did have men and women who were infected with tuberculosis, typhoid, skin diseases and some other disgusting and communicable afflictions. Dishwashers were often men and women too old to do other work, and too hopeless as to their future to take proper care of their persons. This is changed and changing. It takes constant vigilance and time, but aroused public sentiment is back of the undertaking and there is no intention of relaxing endeavor.

Soda water and ice cream stores are benefited by the increasing activity, despite the fact that some of them did not think so at first. Now, however, it is only an antiquated fossil who does not perceive that in taking proper precautions for the safety of his customers' health he is increasing his own business. The few who are obstinate will have to fall into line.

The use of the individual drinking cup is becoming more and more general. Paper dishes and cups are making their way by the merits of sanitation and convenience, and the

closing of the war is going to show a greater increase, both voluntary and recommended, in their use.

The State Department of Health has clearly defined authority in some aspects of sanitary cleanliness in all industries considered. With the Department of Labor and Factory Inspection co-operation, the state of Connecticut is pretty well assured of satisfactory results.

SAVINGS IN THE STATE.

So much has been said of the direful calamities which are to follow the war that it may be a little encouraging to hear there is quite a large number of persons in the state who will be able to keep the wolf from the door. There are over nine hundred thousand depositors in the savings banks, state banks and the trust companies having savings departments. Reaching up to the million mark is a wonderful record, considering the population of the state. The fact must be borne in mind that many have deposits in a number of banks and the actual number of depositors is actually less than the number who are reckoned as having made deposits. Even holding this in view, the amount of the deposits is most gratifying. It shows that Connecticut, the land of steady habits and of prudent folk, clung, even though in a modified degree, to its old customs. It would naturally be inferred as the direct effect of the war that savings bank deposits would show large shrinkage. However, during 1915 and 1916, the state did a tremendous amount of work which brought good prices, and a large per cent. of the workers put part of their earnings aside. But with another class, savings decreased, as far as deposits were concerned. Partly this was due to the high cost of living.

Through the courtesy of the Bank Commissioner the record of deposits in full from the close of the banking year October 1st, 1917 to October 1st, 1918, is given with the added returns made since the Commissioner closed his report. These covered the period from October 1st, 1918 to December 31st, 1918.

Oct. 1, 1918	Savings Bank deposits	\$367,807,600.60
	Deposits in savings departments	
	of Trust companies	37,339,233.88
Dec. 31, 1918	Savings Bank deposits	374,170,175.28
	Savings Departments of	
	Trust Companies	39,409,020.18

During the month of January, 1919, savings deposits increased greatly. No report is yet available.

The entire savings bank deposits from October 1, 1915 to October 1, 1916 were \$374,384,713.92

In State Banks and Trust Companies	
Savings Departments	24,974,591.73
Savings bank deposits from October 1, 1916 to October 1, 1917	366,740,691.93
State Bank and Trust Companies, Savings Departments	33,565,293.38

The war practically ended November 11th, 1918. Since that period the astonishing increase in the number of depositors and deposits has shown there must have been a vast amount of hoarding done by people who evidently were of the impression that if they put their surplus in the savings banks it would be less safe than between mattresses or in old stockings. That this practice was followed largely in the foreign class is further indicated by police reports which show in several cities robberies of houses where thefts of considerable sums, hidden in mattresses and out of the way places, occurred.

The increase of deposits since the close of the war up to December 31st, 1918, was seven million dollars in savings banks and about five or six million dollars in savings departments of trust companies.

In Bridgeport, the home of industries paying high wages, the net increase reported by the institutions of that city for the month of December, 1918, totalled \$1,122,000. In the week from January 2nd to January 10th, \$400,000 was deposited.

Granted that a large part of this represents hoardings, it is to be understood that the hoarders represent a large part of the workers of that town, who, if those facts were not in evidence, might otherwise be said to be suffering from the after effects of the war. It also proves a revival of confidence in the United States as being a pretty good place for their permanent abode. It also goes to favor the inference that despite the conditions resulting from the unexpected closing of the war, Bridgeport is not headed in any direction but toward progress.

The amount of money in the savings banks of the state is a fair criterion of the general condition in that state. There have been deposits in the savings banks that have not been molested since they were put in. Besides, savings bank depositors represent the class of moderate means, workers in the greater number of cases. Part of this depositing contingent also own property, life insurance and more or less stocks in various concerns, and belong to mutual benefit associations. In considering the savings of the

people of the state during this period, there is not included the very large amount invested in building and loan associations, which are safe and conservative methods of utilizing money. Nor the sums that have been put into Liberty Bonds and War Savings Stamps. Yet all of these have taken money which otherwise would have been deposited. Quite a contribution which otherwise might have been hoarded came to Liberty Bonds through the foreign class. War savings as well as Liberty Bonds have their quota.

Since the beginning of unemployment and the shifting of the labor from outside to its original location, there has been a falling off in the payments on the last liberty loan. The previous ones were all paid for, owing to the system employed by factories and other agencies of collection. But men and women who subscribed to the last loan and who are out of work are unlikely to continue their payments. Some of them have already forfeited what they have paid and others have sold their bonds at a discount. This is most unfortunate. It is a pity that some system was not devised which would enable them to have these bonds held for them. In many cases it was actually necessary to sell them; in others, they could have been retained were it not for the mischievous calamity cry of expected continuance and development of hard times which greatly discouraged those who were without surplus. Where the bonds were sold, speculators who bought them to hold profited, and in many cases the benefit goes to the government, thus having some good features.

In the record of the savings of the people there is not usually included the vast amount of money that is really saved by the mutual benefit societies' plan whereby men and women members pay in so much a month and obtain sick, death or disability benefits. In this way disabled men and the wives and families of deceased members are recipients of sums which enable them to live without becoming charges on their communities. One such association, the Locomotive Engineers' Mutual Life and Accident Insurance, is cited because it is not in that class of labor which is affected by the ending of the war and there can be no prejudice in taking it as an example. This association had levied January 1st, 1919, claims amounting to 189,167 deaths, for which \$344,250 was paid; 15 killed for which \$31,000 was distributed and 7 other claims aggregating \$19,500, making a grand total of \$395,250 to aid those who were deprived of revenue from its workers. Connecticut is a great "joining" state. It has any number of other associations which

are mutual benefit in both a fraternal and an industrial sense..

All in all, when the thrift which is demonstrated in the saving record and the sagacity comprising thrift in the society enrollment are considered, the state stands a fair show to be among the first in practical preventive of any wide spread or long enduring financial suffering.

CHILD LABOR.

Child labor has never been abused in Connecticut as it has in other states, notably the southern. A constant agitation has been carried on here. As a result the lawmakers passed a number of protective and prohibitive measures long before the splendid efforts of the friends of the children of the country succeeded in having the national child labor law enacted. As soon as it went into effect, the factory inspectors of the state began a vigorous campaign for its strict enforcement.

Notices requiring compliance with the provisions of the eight hour law were placed in factories and all business houses where children under 16 were employed and were to be regarded as under the regulations. Rulings were received by the Department of Labor and Factory Inspection every fortnight from the Child Labor Bureau at Washington and where they were of pertinence, immediately transmitted to the industries concerned. The state department was flooded with written and personal inquiries from employers as to how schedules should be arranged, whether certain occupations, not manual, might be excepted, etc. The rulings from Washington were explicit, covering every branch of employment whether manual or otherwise in which a child could engage in a factory. They permitted no elastic interpretation.

Boys who were in an office to answer telephone calls, give information, run errands through the departments, carry parcels and go after the mail were held as much under the law as they who worked in the factory. Of course the same ruling applied to girls.

The attitude of the employers in this matter was admirable. After they had received explanation of just what they had to do they proceeded to co-operate with the authorities, fairly and honestly determined to give the law every opportunity to prove its wisdom. Whatever trouble there was lay with the older employes and the children themselves. The former because of the necessity of adjusting their hours of labor to those of the child. Concretely: In order that the child should work only eight hours a day, the employer either had him come in an hour later in the morning or extended his lunch hour to two, or had him go home an hour earlier in the afternoon. All of these plans were based

on the nine hour day. Where ten hours were the rule, the same plans were followed, merely making the time two hours instead of one. On Saturdays the child only worked till 12 noon, thus having in reality a 44 hour week instead of 48.

No matter what course was devised, its application affected adult work. With the exception of carrying letters and messages and looking after the office, there was no special branch of work in which boys and girls under the eight hour law could labor without in some way affecting that of the older employes. Even in inspection, the receiving and completion of their portions of the work had to be regulated. In time keeping, minors within the law could not be used; in handing out tools and helping it was necessary to have them there as soon as the workers began. When the boy came in later in the morning, some part of the work had to be arranged to fit his time; when he left earlier in the afternoon, it involved adjusting some work to suit his departure; in short the different schedules of adult and child labor created some difficulties and entailed some loss of time. Loss of even a minute of time in the case of an individual counts in production and time when multiplied by the yearly working time. Loss when multiplied by the number who are concerned amounts to thousands of dollars in the working year. When the children working were dismissed earlier, they did not go home but hung around outside the building gossiping and making noise. When they came in later in the morning they caused some interruption and the same was true of the lengthening of their noon hour. Another drawback which became apparent to the close observer was the psychological effect of one class of workers leaving before another as suggesting the idea and feeling of fatigue, and causing a lessening of production. The investigator noted in a number of factories that when a child employed left off work, those who were left invariably looked to see what time it was and without any suggestion commented on the hour and how glad they would be to be relieved.

The upshot of it all was that employers generally resolved to dispense with this form of labor, even though they sorely required it. Few concerns were encouraging child labor when the eight hour law was declared off. Even then they did not immediately seek to avail themselves of its aid. Had an eight hour law been uniform for all employees, the situation would have been vastly different. So far as personal observation and investigation goes, the labor of children

under 16 has never been so satisfactory as to be greatly desired. It is not likely from their experience that a concerted effort would be made by the employers of the state to retain it except for such exigency as the war.

When this class of workers is employed in mercantile establishments the duties are much lighter than in manufacturing. These minors are held in such work because older help cannot afford to take such occupations which they fill.

Medical statistics do not include many serious effects. The employment of child labor which has the least objectionable features and has not resulted in bad effects and is most lucrative to the young employe is that offered in the tobacco fields of the state. In a much less degree, farm work is also allowable on the ground of fresh air, but it is decidedly true that boys working on a farm often are asked and compelled to do as much work as an adult. In the tobacco fields and sheds the young workers are not employed more than 55 hours a week and practically receive as much money as they can make. The work is not laborious nor confining. Many children, both boys and girls, worked in the tobacco tents and fields during the summer of 1918. A large number came from nearby homes. Others came in auto trucks from Hartford and smaller towns up the valley. Any morning between 6 and 6:30 groups of children with here and there old women, could be seen at the corner of Sheldon and Main streets, and at other junctions waiting for their conveyances. They were usually singing and laughing, and evidently regarded their trip and work in the line of an outing. They were brought back between 5 and 6, and even then they were having a gay time among themselves. There was not a sick looking child in the load. Their eyes were bright, their faces healthily colored, their flesh firm and their muscles hard. They were remarkably clean skinned. Cutting off the tendrils of the tobacco was about the most taxing labor. The rest of the day's work did not include any stooping over and was performed under good conditions. They made good pay, receiving from \$10 to \$15 a week. Some of them did not work the full 55 hours and they could have the Saturday holiday if they wished. The greater part of these children are those who would not be allowed by the state to work at any other than a seasonal outdoor occupation. Children who could obtain certificates were not found in any appreciable number in the tobacco fields. In one month of 1917, and two of 1918, only 49 certificates were issued by the State Board of Education to children between

14 and 16 enabling them to work in tobacco concerns. The work of sorting and packing is done in tobacco warehouses, and the law defines the latter as manufacturing establishments to be governed by laws applicable to that class. The workers in the field tents range from 10 to 14, only a very few were above the latter age in the 1500 in this industry in the season.

In 1916 the number of certificates issued to child workers between 14 and 16 in all occupations was 13750 up to the first day of November. From November 1st, 1916, to November 1st, 1917, 11502 regular permits and 3224 vacation, were given out, amounting to 14837; from November 1st, 1917, to November 1st, 1918, the regular permits were 13715 and 4003 vacation. From August 1, 1918, to November 1, 1918, 3943 regular and 251 vacation were certified, a total of 4194. It is easy to figure from this the proportion in which child labor increased in the state in the epochal period of the war.

It would be valuable information to learn from school records how the children who are given permission to work during vacation compare in their studies with those who do not work. In many families where there are drunken or worthless husbands or a widowed mother with dependent children, it is a needed help for the child to work through the vacation and on Saturdays. There is a boy who works Saturdays and provides the Sunday and Monday food for the family. Where men are unable to work through disability or sickness, it is not so bad to have a child help to clothe himself to stay in school or to contribute to the upkeep of the family. But there is no more despicable sight to be seen than that often furnished in the State Capitol by brawny, bleary eyed men leading some puny, undersized boy or girl to obtain a certificate to work. Sometimes the children are big and husky too and generally none too intelligent looking, but in all instances the mental question comes: Why is the fond parent loafing in the middle of a workday so that he can show his willingness to have his children work to support him? In the opinion of a woman who witnessed this spectacle such men should be sent to jail and put to work on a road, and their wives should receive their pay.

During the physical examination made necessary during the late war it was something of a shock to find so many of the young men of the country actually unable to stand soldier service. While their conditions could not justly be ascribed in even a small number to work in their childhood

days, their state is no less a strong plea for the development of stamina by conserving child strength.

More children die in the United States, about 300,000 a year than the whole number of casualties in the war of 1917-1918. They might have been saved if their mothers had not been weakened by working days or nights and they themselves had better milk, better care, better housing. There is not such a large number of children to the adult population of the state that even one in 100 can be allowed to die. It is an imperative duty not to impose unnecessary hardship on the developing mental and physical strength of the 14 to 16 year old. Instead of presenting these children with certificates to work, give them a vocational education which will proceed side by side with the necessary branches of learning, so that from 16 to 18 they will be able to bring to their life work an intelligent trained mind to direct the operation of the skill in whatever branch of labor they have elected as theirs.

There is no pressing need, patriotic or otherwise for child labor in the manufacturing industries of the state of Connecticut.

STATISTICAL DATA.

Classifying the employees as to their personal conditions, married, single, children, ages, nationality, was a more difficult task during the years of 1917 and 1918 than it would have been at other periods. So much personal information had been sought in the lines of draft and other questionnaires, and so many were suspicious of the tenor of the questioning that the employers themselves in some cases preferred to have it done by the investigator. In the larger number however, they contributed the answers as to age, nationality and civil conditions.

Where the information had to be personally obtained, the investigator found, like the employers, the greatest difficulty lay with the foreign born, whom it was rather hard to have understand the drift of the queries. Many of those who utterly failed to give intelligible answers, or any answers at all, undoubtedly followed this course, because by some peculiar process of reason they had actually persuaded themselves that giving the information meant harm to them.

TABLE I.

INDUSTRIES, NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, WAGES AND OUTPUT OF THE STATE FOR 1917-18.

Industry	No. of Industries	No. of Employees	Wages Dollars	Value of Output Dollars
Advertising Novelties.....	3	70	77,441	227,411
Airplane Works	2	256	663,676	919,093
Aluminum Castings	2	448	628,752	2,587,624
Artificial Ice	6	210	266,550	739,366
Augur Bits	2	139	116,021	704,380
Automobiles	228	7,244	8,963,588	20,682,180
Awnings and Upholstering....	32	873	737,183	2,123,532
Bakeries	511	3,634	3,795,653	12,830,056
Ball and Roller Bearings.....	7	3,842	3,692,517	10,912,920
Baskets	1	18	12,954	25,521
Beds and Bed Springs.....	3	67	117,541	221,687
Bed Quilts	3	655	357,310	3,621,070
Bells	7	415	268,491	908,728
Blacksmithing Supplies	4	124	141,109	375,300
Boat Building	9	1,347	2,269,427	19,746,976
Bone and Ivory Goods	5	1,062	1,098,047	2,155,700
Breweries	30	1,127	1,669,445	12,629,722
Brass Castings	3	156	188,312	662,315
Brick	5	316	417,988	1,234,840
Brushes	6	147	76,828	353,819

Industry	No. of Industries	No. of Employees	Wages Dollars	Value of Output Dollars
Buffing Wheels	5	252	208,624	601,867
Building Hardware	29	13,362	12,547,091	41,489,654
Buttons and Buckles	19	2,151	1,424,567	4,660,898
Cabinet Work	46	1,282	1,619,428	3,890,461
Canning	3	149	37,277	138,323
Cans	1	83	203,580	624,187
Carpets and Rugs	10	8,298	1,573,418	5,687,393
Carriage Hardware	2	19	34,064	95,486
Casket Hardware	5	220	176,515	732,076
Cereal Grinding	37	687	683,841	7,884,926
Chains	5	4,368	3,634,226	12,374,140
Chemicals	39	1,862	2,628,345	10,251,986
Chucks	4	756	1,117,235	3,042,788
Clocks	11	5,921	4,471,982	10,356,792
Clothing	33	642	570,390	2,347,504
Cold Storage	4	92	49,228	1,735,161
Corsets	24	7,361	4,205,092	16,722,165
Cotton Cloth	68	15,495	10,480,362	60,611,453
Cutlery	15	1,350	1,167,248	2,839,966
Dairy	25	489	527,940	4,559,188
Dies	53	5,589	7,338,181	22,726,348
Drop Forgings	9	862	1,366,640	5,123,582
Dyeing and Cleaning	47	462	411,884	1,581,787
Dynamos	1	6	5,128	9,681
Electric Fittings	28	7,147	4,580,046	16,774,236
Electrical Installation	29	275	499,449	1,863,119
Electrotypes	8	193	338,952	862,811
Elevators	1	680	1,542,345	2,687,982
Enamel Ware	2	172	92,228	203,425
Engines	10	1,916	1,413,868	5,033,951
Engravers	20	278	416,525	1,248,832
Files	1	17	9,598	20,702
Fire Hydrants	1	599	420,000	1,290,000
Gas Meters	2	139	188,178	580,704
Glass	15	354	323,501	1,902,943
Glue, Fertilizer & Fat Rend'ng	15	431	377,197	3,056,138
Gray Iron Castings	3	572	589,896	1,560,636
Guns, Revolvers and Munitions	34	60,997	50,207,784	204,622,513
Hardware Specialties	42	4,147	5,374,875	22,337,872
Hats and Caps	77	8,548	5,423,304	108,085,071
Heaters, Furnaces and Boilers.	9	354	342,105	1,977,259
Heavy Machinery	105	19,174	18,167,553	53,496,579
Horseshoe Nails	1	89	85,474	320,897
House Finish and Woodwork..	162	4,182	6,333,833	17,337,610
Household Articles	5	85	64,184	371,359
Ice Cream and Confectionery..	137	1,847	1,663,127	9,441,275
Jewelry, Art Metal Goods...	12	1,607	1,191,201	3,779,727
Lace and Embroidery	6	1,220	1,524,058	4,525,407
Laundries	91	3,405	2,500,336	4,704,770
Laundry Machinery	2	17	15,449	46,949
Leather	26	878	1,024,311	4,527,432
Light and Power	49	3,443	4,271,051	26,324,513
Lime	2	44	63,440	261,323
Lithographers	1	53	23,130	51,234
Locksmith's Supplies	4	133	114,315	421,947

Industry	No. of Industries	No. of Employees	Wages Dollars	Value of Output Dollars
Lumber	56	1,518	1,834,191	9,215,073
Macaroni	5	63	25,806	168,641
Marine Hardware	3	537	409,243	1,528,123
Machine Parts	4	764	940,299	3,956,872
Machine Repairs	9	306	409,856	204,663
Machine Screw Products	9	670	817,240	2,740,101
Machine Works	8	1,033	945,575	4,795,017
Mattresses & Pillows	15	308	258,298	1,169,209
Meat Packers and Sausage....	15	550	521,642	8,090,903
Metal Refiners	8	252	245,523	2,842,175
Metal Treating	3	149	145,015	829,108
Metal Tubes, Boxes and Pipes.	10	2,761	2,393,609	10,236,935
Metal Plating	13	986	1,611,981	7,448,675
Moulds and Cores	4	207	213,721	802,581
Musical Instruments	14	5,326	6,390,289	17,923,991
Office Appliances	5	305	40,408	210,444
Oil Refiners	1	10	12,272	103,611
Oven Thermometers	1	30	18,888	49,142
Oysters	17	802	570,489	1,192,327
Paint and Varnish	11	326	574,410	2,233,577
Painting	6	43	48,414	118,282
Paper Boxes	105	6,221	3,922,964	26,366,474
Patterns and Models	21	407	483,972	1,616,635
Plumbing, Tin'g & Sheet Metal	86	1,861	3,445,490	10,533,956
Pins and Needles	11	3,553	2,472,940	8,740,737
Pickles	3	53	30,408	174,488
Piston Rings	1	8	6,500	15,000
Printing	252	4,193	9,858,871	12,419,410
Printing Machinery	6	586	576,407	1,433,567
Radiators	9	453	489,653	1,721,187
Recording Instruments	1	685	1,374,880	6,001,992
Railroads and Trolley	12	1,216	711,073	5,842,491
Road Sweepers	1	87	113,500	311,045
Rubber and Elastic Goods....	46	14,628	15,059,047	51,484,563
Saddlery Hardware	3	497	299,296	795,233
Saws and Hammers	5	184	249,394	1,496,237
Scrap Iron and Metals	10	77	187,931	1,592,577
Screws, Rivets, Washers, Bolts, etc.	19	1,974	3,870,398	10,123,542
Seals for Bottles	2	212	265,917	925,563
Sewing Machines	1	1,912	1,506,039	2,184,160
Shirts	7	938	618,114	2,482,342
Shoddy	9	410	302,626	1,022,117
Shoes and Leggings	6	1,118	1,256,605	4,846,061
Silk and Velvet	35	11,616	12,538,901	43,876,894
Silverware	39	5,698	5,943,035	31,205,947
Small Machinery	66	3,739	6,581,178	33,141,226
Small Metal Articles	30	1,560	1,272,510	4,020,154
Smelting	4	276	590,298	4,430,981
Special Machinery	76	28,130	30,205,017	68,483,331
Soap and Toilet Articles....	8	553	346,009	16,044,068
Soft Drinks and Bottling	58	506	744,928	3,124,330
Soldering	1	16	24,960	105,119
Speed Gears	1	167	57,725	98,590

Industry	No. of Indu3tries	No. of Emyloyees	Wages Dollars	Value of Output Dollars
Springs	6	1,050	1,283,427	5,998,572
Starch	2	45	33,271	402,507
Steel Lockers	2	218	166,824	912,148
Stone, Plaster and Concrete ..	92	3,327	5,752,640	19,991,163
Storage Batteries	2	86	26,185	259,929
Store Fixtures and Furniture..	2	16	14,888	51,031
Stoves	3	331	367,789	1,187,039
Telephone Devices	1	100	100,000	383,000
Thread	7	3,633	2,152,102	12,582,133
Tinware	1	25	21,724	46,322
Tobacco	134	6,912	4,603,906	12,515,239
Toys & Sport Goods—Novelties	14	1,060	703,230	2,817,276
Turbines	2	423	611,908	1,478,244
Typewriters	5	2,674	2,181,644	4,093,256
Umbrellas	4	54	50,832	155,494
Underwear	17	3,052	2,547,252	9,545,856
Vacuum Cleaning Devices	2	36	38,376	317,706
Wagons and Carriages	40	329	491,012	1,241,398
Waists and Dresses	14	727	631,518	2,828,613
Water Companies	3	111	123,514	961,941
Watches	2	595	575,802	189,919
Welding	17	909	2,154,430	7,659,504
Wire	36	4,397	4,232,415	21,732,027
Woolens and Worsteds	42	6,298	6,694,091	33,717,103
X-Ray Tubes	1	14	16,328	87,654
Total	3,934	362,993	342,991,750	1,158,045,644
New data received concerning 5,087 employes, too late for classification as to occupation brings total list				
		368,080	343,963,781	1,159,046,868

TABLE II.

NATIONALITIES OF EMPLOYEES IN INDUSTRIES OF THE STATE
INVESTIGATED IN 1917-1918.

Nationalities	Men	Women	Total	Per Cent. of Whole No. of Em- ployees
Abyssinian	4	16	20	.005
Albanian	916	106	1,022	.27
Algerian	2	4	6	.0016
American	100,292	38,466	137,758	37.23
Armenian	1,798	169	1,967	.52
Australian	6	2	8	.002
Austrian	5,843	1,186	7,029	1.88
Bavarian	8	53	61	.016
Belgian	384	568	952	.25
Bohemian	167	189	356	.095
Bulgarian	39	9	48	.013
Canadian	5,127	2,610	7,737	2.075
Chinese	8	0	8	.0024
Croatian	8	0	8	.0024
Cuban	253	42	295	.07
Danish	9,482	2,152	11,634	3.12
Dutch	87	12	99	.026
Egyptian	6	0	6	.0016
English	7,871	4,891	12,762	3.42
Finnish	208	81	289	.075
Flemish	11	25	36	.009
French	4,075	2,094	6,169	1.65
Galician	31	0	31	.083
German	9,321	1,314	10,635	2.85
Greek	2,875	549	3,424	.91
Hungarian	11,957	4,811	16,768	4.57
Indian	6	0	6	.0016
Irish	14,879	6,586	21,465	5.76
Italian	33,454	14,056	47,510	12.75
Japanese	35	4	30	.01
Jews	2,729	1,893	4,622	1.24
Lettish	187	95	282	.0754
Lithuanian	6,669	2,074	8,743	2.34
Mexican	34	8	42	.011
Montenegrin	20	6	26	.007
Negroes	1,731	559	2,290	.61
Norwegian	467	157	624	.16
Persian	9	4	13	.003
Polish	19,728	5,256	24,984	6.7
Porto Rican	62	3	65	.017
Portuguese	971	563	1,534	.41
Roumanian	514	154	668	.18
Russian	13,840	3,258	17,098	4.56
Ruthenian	7	7	14	.004

Nationalities	Men	Women	Total	Per Cent. of Whole No. of Em- ployees
Scotch	2,034	701	2,735	.73
Servian	165	0	165	.044
Slavish	2,904	470	3,374	.905
South American	146	14	160	.043
Spanish	491	72	563	.15
Swedish	11,040	1,863	12,903	3.46
Swiss	615	257	872	.23
Syrian	1,040	274	1,314	.35
Turkish	82	0	82	.022
Ukranian	34	0	34	.009
Welsh	89	9	98	.026
West Indian	14	0	14	.004
Miscellaneous	145	9	154	.041
	274,920	97,701	372,621	100.00

TABLE III.

NATIONALITIES.

	Men Number	Per Cent. of Men	Women Number	Per Cent. of Women
Abyssinian	4	.002	16	.016
Albanian	916	.333	106	.109
Algerian	2	.001	4	.004
American	100,292	36.48	38,466	39.37
Armenian	1,798	.654	169	.18
Australian	6	.002	2	.002
Austrian	5,843	2.12	1,186	1.22
Bavarian	8	.003	53	.054
Belgian	384	.139	568	.58
Bohemian	167	.068	189	.19
Bulgarian	39	.014	9	.009
Canadian	5,127	1.865	2,610	2.67
Chinese	8	.003	0	.0
Croatian	8	.003	0	.0
Cuban	253	.092	42	.043
Danish	9,482	3.449	2,152	2.2
Dutch	87	.032	12	.02
Egyptian	6	.002	0	.0
English	7,871	2.863	4,891	5.
Finnish	208	.075	81	.08
Flemish	11	.004	25	.03
French	4,075	1.48	2,094	2.14
Galacian	31	.011	0	.0
German	9,321	3.39	1,314	1.35
Greek	2,875	1.046	549	.57
Hungarian	11,957	4.35	4,811	4.93
Indian	6	.002	0	.0
Irish	14,879	5.44	6,586	6.74
Italian	33,454	12.16	14,056	14.39
Japanese	35	.012	4	.004
Jew	2,729	.99	1,893	1.94
Lettish	187	.068	95	.095
Lithuanian	6,669	2.425	2,074	2.12
Mexican	34	.012	8	.008
Montenegrin	20	.007	6	.006
Negroes	1,731	.63	559	.57
Norwegian	467	.168	157	.157
Persian	9	.003	4	.004
Polish	19,728	7.17	5,256	5.38
Porto Rican	62	.023	3	.003
Portuguese	971	.353	563	.58
Roumanian	514	.187	154	.16
Russian	13,840	5.034	3,258	3.33
Ruthenian	7	.003	7	.007
Scotch	2,034	.739	701	.717

	Men Number	Per Cent. of Men	Women Number	Per Cent. of Women
Servian	165	.06	0	.0
Slavish	2,904	1.056	470	.48
South American	146	.053	14	.014
Spanish	491	.179	72	.07
Swedish	11,040	4.01	1,863	1.9
Swiss	615	.224	257	.26
Syrian	1,040	.378	274	.28
Turkish	82	.03	0	.0
Ukranian	34	.012	0	.0
Welsh	89	.033	9	.009
West Indian	14	.005	0	.0
Miscellaneous	145	.053	9	.009
	274,920	100.	97,701	100.

TABLE IV.

NATIONALITIES.

Nationality	Men		Women	
	Number of Whole	Per Cent.	Number of Whole	Per Cent.
Abyssinian	4	.001	16	.004
Albanian	916	.25	106	.03
Algerian	2	.001	4	.001
American	100,292	26.92	38,466	10.32
Armenian	1,798	.482	169	.05
Australian	6	.002	2	.001
Austrian	5,843	1.57	1,186	.31
Bavarian	8	.002	53	.014
Belgian	384	.103	568	.152
Bohemian	167	.044	189	.05
Bulgarian	39	.01	9	.003
Canadian	5,127	.138	2,610	.7
Chinese	8	.002	0	.0
Croatian	8	.002	0	.0
Cuban	253	.07	42	.011
Danish	9,482	2.544	2,152	.57
Dutch	87	.03	12	.003
Egyptian	6	.002	0	.0
English	7,871	2.11	4,891	1.31
Finnish	208	.055	81	.02
Flemish	11	.003	25	.006
French	4,075	1.09	2,094	.562
Galician	31	.008	0	.0
German	9,321	2.5	1,314	.35
Greek	2,875	.771	549	.0147
Hungarian	11,957	3.21	4,811	1.29
Indian	6	.002	0	.0
Irish	14,879	3.99	6,856	1.83
Italian	33,454	8.97	14,056	3.77
Japanese	35	.009	4	.001
Jews	2,729	.73	1,893	.5
Lettish	187	.05	95	.02
Lithuanian	6,669	1.79	2,074	.55
Mexican	34	.009	8	.002
Montenegrin	20	.005	6	.002
Negroes	1,731	.464	559	.15
Norwegians	467	.126	157	.04
Persian	9	.003	4	.001
Polish	19,728	5.29	5,256	1.41
Porto Rican	62	.016	3	.001
Portuguese	971	.26	563	.151
Roumanian	514	.14	154	.04
Russian	13,840	3.71	3,258	.874
Ruthenian	7	.001	7	.002
Scotch	2,034	.543	701	.18

Nationality	Men		Women	
	Number	Per Cent. of Whole	Number	Per Cent. of Whole
Servian	165	.044	0	.0
Slavish	2,904	.78	470	.12
South American	146	.04	14	.004
Spanish	491	.131	72	.019
Swedish	11,040	2.96	1,863	.5
Swiss	615	.17	257	.07
Syrian	1,040	.28	274	.073
Turk	82	.022	0	.0
Ukranian	34	.009	0	.0
Welsh	89	.024	9	.003
West Indian	14	.003	0	.0
Miscellaneous	145	.038	9	.003
	274,920	73.77	97,701	26.23
Total numbers				372,621
Per Cent.				100.00

TABLE V.
NATIONALITIES.

Per Cent. of English speaking peoples in industries investigated in
1917-1918.

Nationality	Men	Women
American	100,292	38,466
Australian	6	2
Canadian	5,127	2,610
English	7,871	4,891
Irish	14,879	6,586
Scotch	2,034	701
Welsh	89	9
..		
	<hr/> 130,298	<hr/> 53,265
Total		183,563
Entire number of men	274,920	
Entire number of women	97,701	
Total	<hr/>	372,621
Per cent. of entire number of men English speaking		47.40
Per cent. of entire number of men supposedly non-English speaking		52.60
		<hr/> 100%
Per cent. of entire number of women English speaking.....		54.61
Per cent. of entire number of women supposedly non-English speaking		45.39
		<hr/> 100%
Entire number of men and women, English speaking		183,563
Entire number of men and women who are employes		372,621
Per cent. of the whole number who are assured English speaking		49.26
Per cent. of the whole number who are supposedly non-English speaking		50.24
		<hr/> 100%

Of the 50.24% whose foreign birth has been assumed to mean entire ignorance of English, the investigator believes that 55% of the whole number of foreign races or about 26% of the entire number investigated has some knowledge of English. Of that 26%, fully one-half has a fair comprehension of English.

TABLE VI.

CLASSIFICATION OF EMPLOYEES AS TO AGE AS GIVEN BY THE EMPLOYEES AND EMPLOYERS THEMSELVES.

	Men	Per Cent of Men	Per Cent of Whole Number	Women	Per Cent of Women	Per Cent of Whole Number	Total Number Men and Women	Total Per Cent of Men and Women
Under 16	4,457	1.7	1.25	2,913	3.108	.82	7,370	2.08
16-20	17,124	6.55	4.82	14,506	15.48	4.08	31,730	8.92
20-30	98,857	37.82	27.83	40,510	45.233	11.4	139,377	39.24
30-40	93,532	35.77	26.34	23,494	25,073	6.61	117,026	32.95
40-50	37,189	14.22	10.47	11,570	12,348	3.29	48,769	13.73
50-60	9,870	3.78	2.77	676	.722	.19	10,546	2.97
60-70	432	.16	.12	32	.034	.01	455	.13
	261,452	100.00	73.60	93,701	100.	26.40	355,153	100.

Entire number of men employees whose ages were ascertained	261,452
Entire number of men employees	274,920
Number of men employees whose ages were not ascertained	13,468
Per cent. of men employees whose ages were not ascertained	4.65
Entire number of employees	372,621
Per cent. of men whose ages were not ascertained	3.61
Entire number of women employees whose ages were ascertained	93,701
Entire number of women employees	97,701
Number of women employees whose ages were not ascertained ..	4,000
Per cent. of women employees whose ages were not ascertained	4.09
Entire number of employees	372,621
Per cent. of women whose ages were not ascertained	1.07
Per cent. of entire number whose ages were ascertained	95.31

TABLE VII.
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES CLASSIFIED AS TO TIME AND
METHOD OF WORK.

	Men	Per Cent.	Women	Per Cent.	Total	Per Cent.
Day work	194,186	75.95	61,486	24.05	255,672	100.
Piece work	64,121	65.59	33,499	34.31	97,620	100.
Night work	16,613	85.95	2,716	14.05	19,329	100.
	274,920		97,701		372,621	
Whole number of employes working days.....					255,672	
Per cent. of entire number of workers						68.61
Whole number of employees working piece work....					97,620	
Per cent. of entire number of workers						26.2
Whole number of employees working nights					19,329	
Per cent. of entire number of workers						5.19
					372,621	100.
Entire number of employees classified					372,621	
Entire number of men					274,920	
Per cent. of whole number of workers						73.78
Entire number of women employees					97,701	
Per cent. of whole number of workers						26.22
					372,621	100.

TABLE VIII.

CLASSIFICATION OF EMPLOYES AS TO CIVIL CONDITIONS AS REPORTED BY EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES THEMSELVES.

	Men	Per Cent.	Women	Per Cent.	Total	Per Cent.
Married	170,302	89.73	19,482	10.27	189,784	100.
Single	95,785	58.78	67,157	41.22	162,942	100.
Widows			2,286			
	266,087		88,925		366,012	
Whole number of employees married					189,784	
Whole number of men workers married					170,302	
Per cent. of entire workers						47.98
Whole number of women workers married					19,482	
Per cent. of entire workers						5.49
Number of single men workers					95,785	
Per cent. of entire workers						26.98
Number of single women workers					65,157	
Per cent. of entire workers						18.91
Number of widows who are workers					2,286	
Per cent. of entire workers64
					355,012	100.
Entire number of men whose civil conditions were reported					266,087	
Number and per cent. of married men workers...					170,302	64.00
Number and per cent. of single men workers					96,785	36.00
						100.
Entire number of women workers					88,925	
Number and per cent. of married women workers					19,482	21.91
Number and per cent. of single women workers..					65,157	75.52
Number and per cent. of widows working					2,286	2.57
MEN.						
Entire number of men in factories and kindred industries					274,920	
Entire number of women in factories and kindred industries					97,701	
Entire number of men whose civil conditions were reported					266,087	
Number whose civil conditions were not reported					8,833	
Per cent. of entire number whose conditions were reported						96.79
Per cent. of entire number whose conditions were not reported						3.21
						100.

WOMEN.

Entire number of women whose civil conditions were reported	88,925	
Entire number of women whose civil conditions were not reported	8,776	
Per cent. of entire number whose civil conditions were reported		91.02
Per cent. of entire number whose civil conditions were not reported		8.98
		<hr/> 100.
Entire number of men and women working in factories and kindred industries	372,621	
Per cent. of entire number whose civil conditions were reported		95.27
Per cent. of entire number whose civil conditions were not reported		4.73
		<hr/> 100.
Per cent. of men of entire number reported		71.41
Per cent. of men of entire number not reported ..		2.37
Per cent. of women of entire number reported....		23.86
Per cent. of men of entire number not reported....		2.37
		<hr/> 100.
Total of men and women	372,621	
Number of children reported by the wage earners investigated	211,987	

SUMMARY OF HOURS, WAGES, OUTPUT, ETC.

HOURS OF LABOR

The increase in the hours of labor during the years 1917 and 1918 over the years of 1915 and 1916 was comparatively slight. In many cases there was a marked decrease apparently, as the working week was cut from 55 hours to 48 hours. But it was only an apparent decrease as the workers had an eight hour day under government contracts and as the result of firms having such contracts either as whole or part, conforming their regular working schedule to the demands of the workers and the practice of the United States government, with every firm where eight hours constituted a day's work, overtime was the rule, bringing the actual work up to 55 and 60 hours a week with increase of pay one and one-quarter and one and one-half.

Numbers working specified hour time during 1917-18.

40	44	48	50	52	54	56	60
3,452	20,760	60,170	57,095	22,656	64,070	31,092	70,526

INCREASE OF WAGES.

Increase per cent. in wages began in 1916 to be a considerable factor both as regular increase by a certain per cent. and in the form of bonuses and profit sharing.

10%	15%	20%	25%	30%	40%	45%	50%	60%	100%
18,121	61,387	75,641	49,622	57,834	38,613	21,384	27,189	21,041	789

A number of firms were driven out of business on account of the difficulty in obtaining labor and materials and when they did obtain them, the great advance in cost. Bakeries were particularly hard hit.

In summing up the amount of wages received, it must be carefully emphasized that in many cases where employees' hours were reduced from 55 hours to 48 hours and 44 hours, they really lost considerable, practically $12\frac{1}{2}$ and any where from 10 to 14% on the average, thus decreasing the sum total of their actual wages which is the amount of wages given.

Another cause of decrease in the sum total of wages was the strikes, walkouts, and stoppages of work resulting from demands for higher wages or shorter hours or both. It may seem a trifling sum to lose even one hour's pay but

when this amount is multiplied by hundreds and thousands of hours lost, it becomes vast. Even the cessation of work for a minute means loss to the worker and the employer.

As far as it was possible to estimate this loss caused by sickness, taking a few day off, strikes, walkouts, parleys, etc., it reached the sum of \$3,171,841.62 which is the difference between the actual wages paid as given in the report and the wages which would have been paid if the employees had worked every one of the legal working days.

While in some occupations, sickness and drunkenness were factors, the latter figures in a degree gratifyingly small to the workmen who are proud of their standing. A large part of the loss of wages, apart from labor disturbance, was the habit of taking days' off, indulged in by the higher paid workers. One young man who was making \$84 a week habitually took off a day and a half each week.

AS TO OUTPUT.

The summary of the output of the manufacturers of the state should also be considered with reference to the fact that much more money had to be expended for material, upkeep, fuel, etc., as well as wages. The output, also embraces material both raw and finished so that one man in giving the sum total of his output has therein not only his own finished product but the finished product and raw material of perhaps a score of others. The amount given represents in all cases gross output with no deductions made for material, upkeep, wear and tear, wages, insurance, etc.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

Your investigator urgently recommends the following:

1. The establishment of pre-vocational and vocational courses in grade and grammar schools on the plan of the trade schools now existing.
2. Extension of physical culture exercises to all schools for both boys and girls.
3. The passing of a law preventing the employment of young mothers in both textile and metal industries.
4. Every floor used as one room or each room on a floor where men and women are employed should have toilets for both sexes, situated in different parts of the room or floor, distinctly marked; with screens in front of entrances. Such entrances to be three feet wide, and kept unobstructed. Each toilet should be properly ventilated and should be heated in the winter and lighted by artificial light while the building is in use; disinfectants should be provided; rotten and broken seats should be promptly repaired or replaced; wooden walls and seats should be covered with non-absorbent paint; the walls should be cleaned at least four times a year. Grave reasons, moral and physical, exist for separate toilets in different parts of the room or floor. All toilets should have doors, one foot from the top and from the bottom.
5. Buildings, not factories, where one or more rooms or floors are occupied for business purposes of any kind, employing both sexes, should have separate toilets for both sexes, situated on the floor on which they work. There are hundreds of buildings with no toilet facilities or only one wretched apology for such.
6. Lavatories should be provided for women in an ante room whence the toilets open. Factories exist where women in default of such lavatories wash their hands in the toilet bowls. The lavatories should have hot and cold water, liquid soap and paper towels.
7. Lavatories for men should be of the free flowing stream type where hands are washed directly under the faucet. Washing the hands and face in basins and

troughs for common use should be prohibited. One faucet for five persons is recommended. Paper towels and liquid soap should be provided.

8. Drinking water should be provided in every room. The use of water from buckets or tanks supposed to contain ice should be punished with a fine. One tenth of the working places of the state have the dangerous practice of drinking water out of buckets, using the same glass, cup or dipper. These buckets usually stand in filthy and rotting sinks. Bubbler systems should be installed in every place where people are employed.
9. Direct lighting instead of the diffused indirect should be used in every factory where the work requires close attention to the operation of the machine.
10. Freight elevators whose opening is part of the floor and level therewith should be enclosed with a railing and marked with a white danger line.
11. All fire escapes should be plainly marked and kept clear, and all passages to such unobstructed. Failure to do one or both should be penalized.
12. Rigid requirement should be made for reporting of diseases causing any form of blood poisoning.

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